

READINGS IN
LIBRARY METHODS

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READINGS
IN
LIBRARY METHODS

BY

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PREFACE

The aim of this volume is to bring together articles and extracts relating to library practice and endeavor; together with some information in regard to the history and development of libraries. The selections are intended, chiefly, for the use of class-room students but are of value to any one interested in library problems. Most of them relating to library practice are printed in one or another of the library journals and are thus available in the larger libraries; but the use of journals of any kind for class study, especially if classes are large, is never very satisfactory.

The emphasis in library endeavor and investigations, as in education or in social investigation, shifts from one problem to another. One problem in the forefront just now is the service of the library in adult education; five years hence other questions will no doubt attract more attention. The problems of widening the field of library service providing facilities for those without such service, securing the fullest measure of co-operation between libraries and between countries, providing new, and more comprehensive tools and keys for investigating the ever growing fields of knowledge, — will be with us for many years to come, if ever completely solved.

The articles selected relate chiefly to approved methods of library practice; articles and suggestions which those contemplating library work as a profession should be familiar with. However, in order to include in a small volume the main ideas in a fairly large number of articles it has been necessary, in many instances, to use excerpts rather than the entire selection. In such cases the parts have been arranged so that the main ideas are presented in logical order.

Permission to reprint has been granted by the editors of the different journals and by the authors of the articles; — except in a few instances where the address of authors could not be found. For this kind permission the compilers desire to express their sincere appreciation.

Morgantown, W. Va. August. 1930.

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REFERENCE WORK

The ability to do satisfactory reference work depends upon several qualifications including a wide knowledge of books and their contents, and a retentive memory. The librarian in training for the service should study first the books designed especially for assisting readers and investigators, in other words so called reference books, and then endeavor to obtain as wide a knowledge as possible of the chief works and bibliographies in the different branches of learning. A courteous disposition and a real desire to assist patrons in their search for information are valuable qualifications. No amount of instruction as to the method of rendering this service can take the place of the training, day after day, which comes from actual practice.

Problems of a reference librarian.

Numerous and complex are the problems which confront a reference librarian who conscientiously desires to make her work a power for good.

All reference work should have one unvarying end and aim: to furnish to each and every applicant the readiest, easiest, and surest method of obtaining any information sought. The various means by which this end may be attained constitute the problems which we must consider. If our efforts are crowned with a fair measure of success, that, and a consciousness of a duty well performed, will be the reward with which an earnest worker will be best satisfied. He who looks for such reward in the praise and appreciation of those for whom he works and studies must be disappointed and discouraged, for except in a few rare instances, people are too busy, too engrossed with their own interests, to consider ways and means after they have obtained that for which they are seeking.

The problems may be considered somewhat as follows —

First: What books are properly reference books and should be retained exclusively for such use?

Second: What class of books, even though desirable for circulation, can be of more use to the people in general when so reserved? This will require thought, and each librarian must decide very largely for himself, consulting the needs and resources of his own particular domain.

Third: The proper classifying and listing of reference books independently of the general catalog. This should be as simple and direct as possible, making it quite easy to find a desired book even for one who is not entirely familiar with them through daily use, for there must arise emergencies in every library when such assistance is unavoidable.

Fourth: How far may we become conversant with the contents of our books, that we may waste no time in tilling barren ground — seeking through many volumes for that which they could not possibly contain?

Fifth, and most important: How shall we best and most wisely utilize all for those who come to us for help?

With the books, for reference use exclusively, should be placed encyclopedias, atlases, almanacs, year books, indexes, statistical works, quotation books, concordances — in short, all such books as would never be used for consecutive reading but only as wells of information to be drawn from at need. Added to these should be such works as are too valuable or too rare to make the lending of them advisable and such as are too bulky to be circulated.

The next question (What circulating books would be of more use for reference?) is more difficult for solution, particularly for small libraries where books must be chosen and money expended with careful economy. This must be decided by the librarian from personal experience and judgment. Some histories, other than historical encyclopedias, some good works on mythology, some literary histories and general collections which would usually seem to be doing most good in circulation, are very acceptable to a reference librarian as permanent additions to his stock. When such books in the circulating department can be duplicated in the reference room, duplicate by all means. When that is impossible it will be found a helpful plan to ascertain to what subjects pupils, students, or club workers are intending to devote themselves at a certain time and reserve the material from the circulating department for such use. Otherwise the fortunate or provident first comers secure all the best, much to the discomfort and inconvenience of the more tardy ones and of the reference librarian.

We find the plan works admirably and it is seldom that some books from the circulating department are not reserved for special use. We find that the clubs are very willing, even pleased, to supply us with their year books as soon as issued, which gives us opportunity to look up their work in advance at our leisure and have the references ready to furnish promptly when called for, instead of being obliged to give them hurried and therefore unsatisfactory assistance at busy times when many are waiting for attention. Teachers are also usually glad to furnish such data of their class work as a librarian may request. It is for their benefit and that of their students, therefore it is no unreasonable request.

In regard to the listing of reference books: Of course there are many ways of keeping this important list, but a few have found a satisfactory method to be a classed card shelf-list, representing the books as they appear on the shelves, and kept on the reference librarian's desk. We have used the Dewey classification and Cutter shelf number, but use no distinctive number for separate volumes of sets.

For convenience and economy of space we have all miscellaneous books as well as periodicals, arranged in three separate orders on the shelves, according to the three sizes, duodecimo, quarto, and folio, and we designate their position by the size mark on the shelf-list. The location of atlases, art books, and other folios which are kept in art cases is indicated on the shelf-list also.

How may we know our books? By endless patient research. Read, read again, read more, study your books. Know each book individually as you know your friends, only know it far better. Know just what kind of knowledge it contains. An encyclopedia, dictionary, or atlas will pay for the trouble of investigation, as some are strong in one direction, some in another, while an almanac is a treasure of information.

Above all neglect not the government pamphlets, of which almost every library, however small, receives many. Carefully sort and classify, catalog and place them in the reference room, or conveniently near, that they may be used for reference work. The subject of government documents and pamphlets is too extensive a one to be more than mentioned here; but their place is of too great importance in this connection to be passed by without a word. The Smithsonian publications constitute a very valuable reference library in themselves.

So much for preliminaries, for just as all work in the circulating library is but toward the one end of supplying the needs and wants of the people, so all plans in the reference room must be for that one purpose also. This fact is sometimes almost lost sight of by the enthusiastic "special" workers who are in danger of harboring the conviction that the methodical care and preservation of the library is of prime importance and who would make rules and regulations to that effect regardless of all else.

While accessioning, shelf-listing and cataloging, etc., cannot be too carefully, methodically, and neatly done, still these are but means to an end and that end is placing the books before their owners, the people, in a manner to make them feel a true interest and pride in their property.

Since Dr. Poole, the benefactor of students and librarians, has given us the key to the storehouse of periodical literature since 1801, much light has been shed upon the path of the searcher of facts and fancies. With the assistance of "Poole's index", Fletcher's "Annual literary index", which ably supplements it, the "Cumulative index" and a few sets of magazines, much good reference work can be accomplished even though the supply of other reference books is meagre. I should advise every library to endeavor to possess these aids if any effort can make it possible. Though it may be that economy must be practised in other directions, this expenditure will pay in the amount of good in every way. If "Poole" is impossible then much good may be done with a complete set of "Harper's Monthly" and one of Appleton's "Popular Science Monthly", both so well indexed in themselves. If still another set can be afforded, Littell's "Living Age" contains as much miscellaneous material as any, perhaps more. No better sets than these can be found for a small library unable to supply more than a limited number of periodicals. Above all, let the uninitiated beware of pitfalls in the shape of broken sets. If you yearn for magazines, search, and advertise if you will, for complete sets; but do not buy broken ones. These mean much tribulation at some future time when your needs demand that the gaps be filled. The missing numbers are always the most difficult to procure, as is proven by the fact that broken sets in most cases lack the same numbers. A perfect record of such periodicals as the library contains should be kept. I should recommend the card shelf-list here also; each magazine to be entered on a card, together with the date and accession number. The new numbers as soon as bound can be added to this without

disturbing the order. These can be filed according to the arrangement on the shelves, kept in a catalog drawer, or lacking this, a box will serve the purpose.

When all these aids are at hand let not the reference worker fall into the easy error of keeping the public in a helpless state of ignorance by doing all the search work herself, placing before them not only the book but page and paragraph desired. This method is much easier and less trying than showing the people the sources whence they may help themselves, but it is not real help. There are exceptions to this certainly; no bit of advice however good can be applied promiscuously to all cases. We must learn to discriminate between the student who wishes to learn and the individual who must needs write a paper for the edification or otherwise of a more or less intelligent audience and would accomplish the task in a manner involving as little personal labor as possible. For such the method first mentioned will be found altogether most satisfactory.

Too much can hardly be said on the importance of bibliography in reference work. By this I mean not only those prepared by expert bibliographers and to be found in many books as further references to the subject upon which the book treats, but those which we may with care and patience prepare for ourselves.

When a subject is presented for consideration which requires search into the very depths of all the material which we may have at hand (and how often just this occurs only a reference librarian can state), why not prepare a methodical list of all references found, either on sheet or on card, preferably the latter, and file away in order? Possibly this subject may not be called for again, but probably it will be, and that ere long, for the history of reference work is that it repeats itself continually. And I should also advise every library, however small, to catalog every scrap of bibliography as soon as found, no matter upon what subject. All will be useful sometime, either in choice of books to purchase or for finding information in those already on the shelves.

The foregoing suggestions presuppose the existence of a separate reference department, which there should be if in any way possible. There should always be a room which is quiet and restful, a room supplied with such books as may be desired for study, even though it be impossible to reserve part of the library for reference use alone.

When the staff consists of a librarian and perhaps two or three assistants it may not be possible to have a special attendant for

each room, but those who attend the circulating counter may well devote part of their time to reference work. They can make special lists for subjects and periods of particular interest — political events, birthdays of noted people, deaths of celebrities, for example. One who exercises her wits in this way is in no danger of degenerating into a machine.

Last to be mentioned, but neither last nor least in importance, are the qualities and character desirable in one who takes upon herself the duties and obligation of a reference librarian. One needs a stock of general all-around knowledge embracing the varied subjects upon which human intellect of all ages has exercised its powers and its weakness — or in absence of such knowledge, there must be a faculty for finding the information desired. Of almost more importance than the knowledge itself is the familiarity with the sources from which it may be derived, and their name is legion.

Not bit of wisdom should be scorned, no matter how trivial it may seem. Garner all, from the gravest, driest bit of ancient Egyptology to the latest, most approved method of trout fishing. All, all will be useful for the "many men of many minds" who come for help in their search for knowledge. Added to this should be endless patience with those who are searching, yet "know not what they seek", and the tact which cannot be acquired but which emanates from a quick sympathy with others and their interests, even their fads and hobbies. There may be worse things than these. We may take for our motto and watchword Edward Everett Hale's "Lend a hand" and, though we may never reach our ideals, we can but strive to do so and surely constant, patient endeavour must be attended with a fair degree of success at last*).

The college library and research work.

I shall suppose, then, that research work is of two kinds, both important, but one of them much more important than the other. The first and most common kind is that ordinarily done by the graduate student in the university. It is the gathering of material — the collection of information on some particular phase of some

*) **Rosenberg, Ida L.** Problems of a reference librarian. *Library journal*, 29 : 120-23. Miss **Rosenberg** was formerly assistant in the Grand Rapids Public Library.

particular subject — and is not only of value in itself, but when taken together with the work done by other students along related lines becomes part of the structure on which scholarship is built. We may call it analytical research. The other kind is that done by the man of clear vision and wide outlook, mature enough to see that the analytical work is material for a bigger thing — call it what you will —, the man who can take the information others have collected and impart it in the form of culture. This is synthetic research work. Now the university has much of the former, some of the latter. The college has need only of the synthetic. If its place in the educational world is to be permanent, its contribution to education must be cultural. The type of teacher it needs, and I believe must have, is the man who has done, or is capable of doing, synthetic research work. In his hands teaching takes on a vitality, a spontaneity, a genuineness that no one else can give it. That the book collection of the average college would be sufficient for the needs of men like this is out of the question. There would inevitably arise a demand for the purchase of works of an entirely different kind — a demand that would have to be at least partially met. This demand would be for research material, by which I mean the results of research work, and the problem of such a college library would become a problem in discrimination — the decision as to what of this material it should try to obtain.

It ought not to be difficult to draw a clear distinction between analytical and synthetic research material. Illustrations of the first will readily occur to you, one as good as any being the usual thesis submitted for the doctor's degree. All "source" material is necessarily analytical — is the result of a careful, painstaking, often laborious research for information; information that may illuminate some dark corner of the field of knowledge. But it is never itself illumined by the spark of genius, nor wrought by the loving hand of the artist. It is merely the wood and the stone out of which a complete structure may some day arise.

Now how does the synthetic conception of research apply to history? A modern German writer has compressed the whole significance of it into a sentence: "The writing of History", he says, "is just as truly *a will toward a picture* as it is a knowledge of sources". In other words synthesis of the kind referred to is always the work of the artist, and in the nature of things becomes thereby a contribution to culture. Gibbon's "Decline and fall of the Roman Empire", Lamprecht's "History of Germany", Rhodes' "History

of the United States" — these are all synthetic: each one existed first as a picture in the mind of the artist, not merely as an array of sources from which the facts of history might be drawn.

"But", you say, "all libraries buy these books and others like them as a matter of course". Yes, we do, but I think the trouble is that we do not make books of this sort our standard, if indeed we have any standard beyond a favorable review or a request from a patron. It is no more true that the result of all synthetic research is cultural than that the result of all artistic endeavor is beautiful. Results here are just as uneven as anywhere else, with much that is good and perhaps even more that is bad, and it is when we come to discriminate that we are apt to go astray. Now a teacher such as I have in mind would keep abreast through the better periodicals of all that was being done in his particular line, and if facilities were furnished, would buy what he needed — monographs, bibliographies, biographies, and some larger works — things that would not only give his teaching a vitality and freshness otherwise lacking, but would help to hasten the day when his own contribution to the world's culture should see the light.

Assuming then that a college accepts this view, and proposes to encourage its faculty to do research work, what are the practical ways in which the library can not only co-operate, but further such an undertaking? For I believe there are several. A preliminary statement as to the functions of the college library would seem to be essential. These have often been set forth for us in detail, and I shall only enumerate them here. The first and most important function is, of course, to meet the needs of the students and teachers as they arise in the regular college work. Along with this is the supplying of books for general reading, outside of the curriculum. Most of these books are bought for members of the faculty, who are thereby enabled to keep in touch with the latest developments in their own and other fields, and to avoid the possibility of mental stagnation from too close association with a particular subject. I believe much more might, — and should — be done in the way of developing a taste for general reading on the part of the students, but that is another story.

Apart from these what are the functions of the college library? To be, so far as it can the centre of culture for the community in which it is located; to aid the local public library in its work with women's clubs and high school pupils; to lend books freely to other libraries. And in our own case there

is the added opportunity of being of some assistance to another institution in the same town.

Now these things are all important, and the librarian who does not realize it, who fails to utilize to the utmost the possibilities they contain for intellectual and social betterment, is not worthy of his hire. But the point of view I take in this article compels me to consider them as secondary. The college library exists first of all to supply the book needs of its own students and faculty, and for nothing else. The expenditure of its funds, always insufficient, must be limited to this chief function. It is probable that all these other things I have enumerated can be done without any financial loss to the library, but where any of them means a diversion of library funds, it becomes unjustifiable.

I said above that there are several practical ways in which a library — more properly, perhaps, — a librarian — can not only co-operate, but further a movement to encourage research work on the part of members of the faculty. My remarks are of necessity limited to my observation of conditions in the institution with which I am connected, and are not to be considered general in their application. At the same time, I am inclined to think that these conditions are reproduced, at least to a certain extent, in most college libraries ...

Now there is, of course, another side to all this, and we should be short-sighted indeed not to recognize it. The college library which spent any considerable share of its funds for research material which really belongs only in the university library would have no means whatever of justifying itself — would be worse off than an institution which had no research material whatever. How may we guard against this danger? I must take it for granted that the sort of teacher I have been considering would choose his research material wisely and with the right perspective. In case he failed to do this I should expect the librarian to tell him so. And back of the librarian should be a real library committee; so constituted as to represent the different departments as fairly as possible; having charge of the allotment of book funds; advising and helping the librarian in the shaping of the library's policy ...

I believe the book collection of the average college library is much below what it might be in point of quality. A possible way of changing this situation for the better is to encourage members of the faculty to do research work. This would also result in a higher standard of teaching — or so at least all the teachers with whom I

have talked assure me. It is not necessary to assume that research is essential to scholarship but merely that it adds something to a man's efficiency and power that can be gotten in no other way. The college librarian, if he cares to, can play an important part in bringing these things about.

You will doubtless find this scheme — represented here only in outline — rather idealistic, but so, I take it, are all educational schemes. I can only hope that you will find also some soundness in its theory — some small addition to the constructive criticism of a condition which I believe to be fundamentally wrong *).

Scientific management in reference work.

What we call "reference work" has been a little in disrepute of late, and there has been some discussion as to the amount of time which may legitimately be spent in helping the curious inquirer to learn how many of the Louis's died a natural death or whether Helen of Troy wore locks of Titian red. But it is only in the large library that there can be any limitation of what we call the reference department to the handling of such academic quibbles. It is true that in the large library the technical department, the business branch, the art department may limit and thin the quality of work left to the reference librarian, till he (or she) may feel that only the dry bones of the day's research are his (or hers). But in the small library there is no such limitation, and the reference librarian, who may also be the head librarian and the chief cataloger, may come in touch each day with every sort of human interest, from the eager desire of the office clerk to get back to the soil by the road, of raising rice in Arkansas or apples in Idaho, to the yearning of economic independence and artistic expression in the soul of the girl who comes to pour over books on design.

To one who is fully awake to the human side of things, there can never be any dull monotony in the life of the reference librarian. I have often wished that I had time — and genius — to write the Romance of the Reference Library. It would cover as many pages, and be almost as thrilling as the Thousand-and-One-Nights. I wish

*) **Fletcher, Robert S.** The college library and research work. A. L. A. Bulletin, 7 : 321-25.

Mr. **Fletcher** is librarian of Converse Memorial Library, Amherst College.

I had time to tell you the Molly-Make-Believe-Episode of Goodwyn Institute library, or the Tale of the Telegram from the Nicaragua Revolution.

Now in the small library where one reference assistant must be so many people in the course of one day, there is special need of scientific management of time, labor, methods and resources. Fortunately, the reference assistant has few *statistics* to trouble with. The only record that seems essential is that of questions asked and topics looked up. A pad of paper, dated, kept at one's elbow, and questions jotted down almost as they are being asked — this gives an interesting basis for monthly and yearly reports, and makes something to show for the day's work much more interesting than mere figures, and does furnish certain figures, especially if we add, after each topic, approximate number of books, pamphlets and magazines used in getting information or material desired.

From these daily sheets interesting deductions can be made, classifications of different kinds and sources of questions asked, what classes of people are users and which are non-users of the library, on what lines the library needs to build up its resources, and in what directions it needs to advertise better. Red pencil checks may be placed against more significant topics, for quick summarization at the end of the month. If the question is for school or club work, or likely to recur again, take a pencil and small pad, write Panama canal tolls or labor laws affecting women, or whatever the subject may be, at the top of the pad, and make rapid notes of magazine articles, books, etc., looked up. Much time is lost in looking up the same things over and over again, sometimes by one assistant, and sometimes by another. Lists jotted down roughly while material is being looked up, or directly after, may be copied by typewriter on catalog cards and filed alphabetically in a special tray of the catalog case, where they will be quickly available for the next call. For debates, the material listed on cards should be grouped roughly under "general", to "affirmative" or "negative". Of course for debate work the first aid to scientific management is the use, so far as possible, of the work done by others in such invaluable little manuals as the Debaters' Hand-Book series, and the debate pamphlets of the Universities of Wisconsin, Texas, Iowa, and others, supplemented by the latest magazine articles in the Readers' Guide.

The same economic principle applies, of course, to every other class of subjects looked up. Make use of work done by others,

whether in the form of bibliographies, indexes, reports and publications of special organizations, or what not. Two small indexes which save much time in the small library are the Pittsburgh Library Debate Index and their Contemporary Biography. Though the latter is now ten years old it is still extremely useful to those libraries which are so fortunate as to own copies.

Another economy for time and money is the using of book-lists printed by other libraries or organizations, checking on them the titles in one's own library, putting the library stamp upon them, and distributing them to the class of users interested. Goodwyn Institute library has recently done this with the booklet entitled: "What to read on business efficiency", issued by the Business Book Bureau of New York.

An important psychological point is always to get one good piece of material before each *researcher* promptly, then other material may be gathered more deliberately. If several people are waiting at once, give each *one* reference to start on, rather than serve one in detail while all others wait their turn. Perhaps this is a small and obvious trifle to dwell upon, but it is a bromidiom that trifles make success, in reference work as in anything else.

Returning to the wisdom of using others' work, I must emphasize the importance of collecting the material put out by all sorts of special organizations. We know that every subject now has its literature, from "votes for women" to the extermination of the house fly or the loan shark. And much of this matter, often in pamphlet or leaflet form, is obtainable free or at small cost. Frequently such literature is the latest and most authoritative word upon any subject.

In our scheme of scientific management, therefore, the small library, perhaps even more than the large, can not afford to do without collecting such literature. The pamphlet collection is indispensable. It means work, but in the end, by its live usefulness, it saves time. By scientific management and intensive use a small library with a good pamphlet collection can get better results than one three times as large whose resources are not up-to-date and thoroughly made use of.

The idea that a modern library is, or should be, a Central Bureau of Information for its own town or city is one that we first have to get thoroughly into our own heads, and then impress upon our public. In the effort to find the simplest and most effective way to present this idea to our Memphis public, we tried running the following card in the street cars:

"What do *You* want to Know?

You have 12,000 books, Trade Journals, Magazines on all subjects, and an Information Bureau for *Your* use absolutely *Free* in Goodwyn Institute Library".

We were able to make especially advantageous terms with the street car advertising company, whose representative had himself made use of the resources of the library, and we have been running this card, or similarly worded ones, for over a year. The results, sometimes direct, sometimes indirect, have been very interesting. The card has brought us many business men, and other street car users, who, seeing our invitation daily, recall it from the depths of their subconsciousness when they do want to know. The card is often taken quite literally, as in the case of the young Russian from Odessa, later from St. Louis, who read the sign in the street car which brought him from the railroad station. He came straight to the library and to the information desk, told his story briefly, and succinctly, and asked how he could find a position as house boy, for which he was qualified. The Jewish rabbi happened to be in the library, at the moment. He called up the head of the Jewish Charities, who on hearing that the lad was from Odessa, said; "Why, that is my native place. Send him along and I will surely find him something". And he did.

The use of the telephone is encouraged for information needed quickly. If a busy business man wishes to know the name and address of the U. S. Consul in Peru, the 1910 population of Guthrie, Oklahoma, the meaning of a troublesome phrase in a Spanish letter, he appreciates knowing that he can get a prompt reply by calling up the library. The St. Joseph library makes this feature of its information service effectively known by attractive blotters and leaflets sent to business men.

We are all familiar with the insistent demands of club members and of school children, set sometimes, the former by the club system and the latter by the school system, to subjects beyond their grasp. Of the vexed problem of distributing our crowded hours judiciously among all these demands, Miss Bacon has written most lucidly in her delightful paper on "What the public wants", in the May (1913) Library Journal.

Certainly we have to learn to discriminate as to the time and attention we give to each demand upon us. Yet each is important to the man, woman, or child, who makes it, and however briefly

and expeditiously we may dispose of it, let us make the questioner feel that he did well to come to us, that we are for the moment concentrating upon his problem, and that we are giving him the best assistance in our power, even if it be only an address, or a telephone number, or the name of a book in which his question will be answered.

Let me repeat that it is all largely a matter of making our library a clearing house of information, of connecting the man with the answer to his question, rather than of necessarily answering it ourselves. And to this end, and by these means, the small library may be as useful as the large *).

Compiling a bibliography.

What do we mean when we make use of the term bibliography? As here understood, a bibliography is a record, in technical form, of all the literature known to exist upon any specific topic or subject.

The compilation of a bibliography is a subject which may be considered from two points of view; the theoretical and practical. From either standpoint it bristles with technicalities and difficulties and it is quite unlikely that what I may have to say upon it will prove of general interest. While it is true that it appeals to but few minds, it gives me great satisfaction to know that those for whom I am writing are both by experience and training most likely to belong to that small class of which I have just spoken. Some one may ask — Why are not library catalogs sufficient for all practical purposes? Why does it become necessary to compile bibliographies and in what respect are they superior to such catalogs? In reply, it may be justly said, that, for the great mass of people the library catalog answers most inquiries, but for the scholarly student or writer who wishes to know all that can be learned upon any special subject — one, perhaps, to which he proposes to devote months or years of study, as a Bancroft, a Parkman, or a Motley, who deliberately sits down to write the history of a certain epoch or nation — it will at once be perceived that every source of information, no matter how trivial or insignificant, should be placed

*) **Freeman, Marilla Waite.** Scientific management and the reference department as a bureau of information. A. L. A. Bulletin, 7 : 331-36.

Miss **Freeman** is assistant librarian, Cleveland Public, Library.

at his disposal. While the example just given may be extreme in its application, the fact remains that there is a large class of writers and readers in search of information upon all conceivable subjects, who wish to pursue the subjects of their search with great thoroughness. Few of these persons have the time or means to travel from library to library, and so familiarize themselves with the resources of the largest libraries in the country, and even if they had, few of the catalogs of these libraries are so constructed as to show all the material upon any given subject which lies hidden in the periodicals, proceedings of learned societies, and various other compilations, which rest upon their shelves.

The ideal library catalog is that one which shows the entire literary production of every person, and of every work or contribution to every subject in that library, no matter where they may lie hidden. Such a catalog, alas! has but an imaginary existence. If this is true of our largest libraries, which from the very nature of their collections, when compared with the entire product of the world's literary activities, must be pitifully incomplete, where shall we look for anything approaching completeness of record upon any subject, except in a bibliography especially devoted to that subject?

What, therefore, libraries and governments, even, have neglected to accomplish, it has fallen upon the shoulders of individuals to do. We therefore find many contributing their share toward surveying and mapping out the great field of knowledge, selecting some special portion, and giving us the benefits of their knowledge and researches in the form of bibliographies.

Now a bibliography may be made upon any conceivable subject; upon any subject, in fact, upon which a man can write, whether a book, pamphlet, or occasional article. Broadly classed, most printed words, are found to be written about persons, places, or things, or take various literary forms such as poetry, essays, or the drama, etc. Probably there is no one subject around which literature more naturally groups itself than that of locality or place. As my experience in bibliographical work has been confined mostly to works of this description, whatever I have to say will naturally relate to this phase of the subject. It might almost, with truth, be said that everything centers about some locality.

We are all, more or less, interested in some place, usually the town in which we live. If we are connected with a library, nothing would seem more natural than that we should desire to place upon its shelves all the books and pamphlets, in short everything which

can be secured which relates in any way to the city, township, county, or state in which the library is situated. These works, to be useful, must of course be cataloged. Here, then, we have a subject at our very hands, and one most naturally chosen: the formation of a special library and the beginning of a bibliography. Here, too, is an incentive to activity in making both the collection and the record as full and complete as possible. Again, we have all the most favoring conditions for successfully carrying out such an enterprise. Many persons are already, or may be easily made, interested in the work. Still, again, no place is so likely to contain the materials we are in search of as the place concerning which this literature has been written. Should a house to house search be made, it cannot but be rewarded with many precious discoveries. And just here it may be best to call attention to what should be looked for in collecting material for a local bibliography.

1. Printed works the contents of which relate exclusively to the locality chosen or to any part of it.
2. Printed works which contain a substantial and important reference to the locality chosen or to any part of it.
3. Biographies of the inhabitants of the locality chosen.
4. Locally printed works.
5. Works written by the inhabitants of the locality chosen.
6. Speeches or sermons on general subjects delivered within the locality chosen.
7. Prints.
8. Maps.
9. Manuscripts.

The choice of material to be made use of in the various classes I have named — what to include and what to exclude — is far from an easy question to determine. A general rule, however, may be laid down: the smaller the place chosen the greater should be the effort to include everything about it . . .

Having selected the place of which we propose to compile a bibliography the first query which confronts us is, How shall we make a beginning? How are we to learn what has been written about it? There is perhaps no better way to begin than by obtaining the best or, at least, the most comprehensive work upon the subject and reading it carefully through, making notes (as will hereafter be described), of every citation or authority that the writer gives. No author, as a rule, attempts to write upon any topic without first looking up, to a more or less thorough extent, what has already

been written upon it. From what he finds he borrows, or adapts, and, if an honest writer, indicates the sources from which he has obtained his information. Consult, also, the catalogs and the bibliographies upon which you can lay your hands. By this means you will soon learn of the most important works which have been written concerning your subject. You may, perhaps, discover that a bibliography of the place has already been compiled and that it would be time and labor thrown away to proceed with your project. Or, again, you may discover that there exists an old bibliography, which you can supplement and bring down to date, amplifying its scope, if need be, and really making a new work of it. For the encouragement of those desiring to take up this class of work, it may be said that in this country but little thorough work has been accomplished in local bibliography. The field is comparatively unworked, and there still remains much work which ought to be done. For, in the words of Dr. Elliott Coues, in the preface to an excellent special bibliography which he compiled: "Bibliography is never finished and (is) always more or less defective, even on ground long gone over".

There are two methods of compiling a bibliography. The first consists in copying all the titles that can be found in the catalogs of booksellers, libraries, publishers, special bibliographies, subject or local, etc., and arranging them in an orderly manner. At best this class of work savors of Grubstreet and is an achievement which the painstaking, accurate, and conscientious bibliographer justly holds in scorn. For when completed, it is but the preliminary work or rough sketch, which he should consider as his starting point. Such a work as I have sketched is more than likely to carry mortifying evidences of its origin. The "pride of accuracy" of which Henry Stevens spoke, has often been brought low even when a most carefully prepared catalog or bibliography has appeared in type. How much greater is likely to be the mortification of the compiler of such a work as we have just described, when it is borne in mind that a bibliography so constructed (though seeming to be a royal road to bibliographical success) not only perpetuates his own errors but adds to them those of the works from which the material has been appropriated ...

I have pursued my work as follows: In the case of a book which relates wholly to the subject I am treating, I first exhaust the information given by the title-page and in the exact order in which it is there given. There are only one or two portions of any

title-page, which, in my judgment, it is safe to omit. First, the list of titles, etc. (frequently given at wearisome length), which follows an author's name. Even here caution should be taken to omit nothing which shall show that the author is, in any special sense, an authority upon the subject of which he writes. All information of an extraneous nature had much better be omitted. Secondly, mottoes or quotations which embellish a title-page may be treated in a like manner. Sometimes their appositeness is such that they may well be retained. The lining of titles of old books should be given, say before 1850, and especially of very rare books even if of more recent date *).

Selecting a reference collection.

The law of supply and demand is operative in the world of books in much the same way as in the world of commerce, and whereas in earlier days the supply followed, a little tardily perhaps, after the demand, in these days the commercial plan of stimulating the demand by various methods, is not unknown in bibliographical fields.

One of the most effective commercial methods of stimulating demand is the attractive display of goods, and librarians have found the same principle operative when applied to books. This fact has probably been a strong factor in the development of open-shelf libraries, although there are other reasons that quite justify the pulling down of the barriers. Perhaps the most apparent reason for open shelves with many persons is the ease with which books can be got when direct access is allowed, and the consequent saving of time and labor. No doubt this is also the most active principle in creating a reference library that is made up of books so frequently wanted for consultation that the usual process of getting them by means of the catalog would be well-nigh intolerable in American libraries.

The first principle of selection for a reference collection in any library is undoubtedly based upon the question as to what books are so frequently wanted that they should be placed on open shelves for ready reference. Clearly this is an indeterminate lot

*) **Cole, George Watson.** Compiling a bibliography. *Library journal*, 26: 791-795
Dr. Cole is librarian of the Henry E. Huntington Library, Pasadena, California.

that may range all the way from the usual dictionaries and cyclopedias to a large library. In the make up of such a collection beyond the cyclopedic materials, the needs of the users, varying with different localities, must be a determining factor, the demands of a university community, for example, being different from those of a manufacturing community, or a metropolitan district.

In a college and university community it is possible to distinguish, on broad lines, between two different kinds of work going on simultaneously, viz., reference work and research work, ordinarily thought to be quite the same. Much they undoubtedly have in common, but viewed from the point of materials wanted, they differ in many ways. A person doing research work must, of course, be constantly making use of the usual reference works, but the reference worker may never have need of much of the material indispensable to the research worker.

For research work of a serious nature one must have access to all sources, old and modern. He may need the rarest books in the library or he may need the last World's almanac. He may need a book that has not been wanted for the last ten years, or he may have occasion to consult a work long since discredited or positively erroneous. Not infrequently some obscure dissertation is the only thing that will serve his need. Clearly, then, all his materials are not in the class of open-shelf reference books. Nothing short of the resources of the whole library will suffice in many cases.

The readers who make most use of a reference collection are those who want the latest facts about any particular subject summarized in the most convenient form. For this particular purpose they need generally the latest authoritative work. Oftentimes such works are at the same time original sources — the latest annual report on some subject or the latest statistical compilation — and as such are also of prime importance to the research worker. They are the tangents of these two classes of workers.

There is a third group of users whose needs are just as real, though not thought as important, that must be taken into consideration in every college community, because the materials it requires overlap or dovetail into, as it were, the materials needed by the other groups. It consists of the general readers for cultural purposes. They are not looking for facts primarily, but they require many books that are filled with facts. Their stimulus may come in the form of collateral reading for college work or from a personal interest in some subject.

The old theory that a reference library should comprise only standard dictionaries, cyclopedias, almanacs and a few other books similar in character, is no longer adequate to the needs. Nor does it suffice to add to this material sets of periodicals, which many libraries do, because reference work leads one into this material extensively. There is still another class of books that is constantly needed for reference work, that may at times be needed for research work, and is the main supply of the general reader. This is the great group of monographic literature, that which remains after cyclopedic and periodical literature have been counted out. Not all of such literature has a place among reference books, but the standard works of this class are indispensable there, and no reference work of a high grade can be done without them.

The three great groups, then, that must enter into the composition of a reference library are: the cyclopedias, the periodicals, and the monographic literature. The worth of such a collection, as is the case with the make-up of a general cyclopedia, lies largely in the proportion of materials included. As an otherwise valuable cyclopedia may be seriously discredited by the lack of a proper balance of its materials, so the value of a reference collection may be seriously impaired by the inclusion of too much of one class to the exclusion of materials of another. Many periodicals will increase the number of references one is able to get at easily, but this facility may be purchased at the cost of other and more important needs. This nice adjustment, when the space available or the funds, are limited, is the test of efficiency. And this adjusting process is not a matter that can be done for all but is a continuous process, ever changing with the growth of literature.

As a broad general working plan, a reference library may be laid down on these plans:

1. General bibliographies, cyclopedias (including biographical, statistical and geographical cyclopedias), dictionaries, yearbooks, and other cyclopedic materials, too general for subject classification.
2. Periodical literature of such a general character as experience has shown to include many references, current in literature.
3. Standard monographic works covering all branches of knowledge, classed by subjects.

... The make-up of such a reference collection is rather that of a selected library. In addition to the *general* cyclopedic reference works, the several special subject groups include the

bibliographies, dictionaries, cyclopedias, annual reports, yearbooks, etc., of these special subjects. And in addition to these, many of which change frequently, are the constantly appearing monographs, historic and descriptive, of interest to the general reader, essential to the best reference work, and less necessary to the research worker. A considerable number of the best works on every subject, in fact it is not too much to say that all the latest authoritative work on a subject, may well be kept on the open reference shelves, one work supplying the need when another is out or temporarily in use. When kept in the stack, reference work constantly calls these books into the reading room. Why not keep them there?

... Any reference library that is kept up to date must be frequently changed; old editions must give way to new, old works be replaced by new and better ones, the fresher the material the better. Again, the book wanted may be in use by another within the library for so long a time as to effectually prevent its use by one who thinks his need brooks no delay. These and other legitimate causes for the absence of books from their accustomed places violate the reader's expectation quite as much as when absent for home use. To be sure standard dictionaries, cyclopedias and other purely reference materials should always remain in the library because of their frequent use, until replaced by later works, but the monographic literature wanted for reading as well as for reference can be shifted from the place where it is less needed to the place where the need is more apparent without other results than maximum efficiency and the minimum inconvenience.

For purposes of reference, often any one of a dozen books on a given subject will answer the need equally well, and the whole dozen are never absent at any one time. Books of such a character as experience has shown to be too frequently wanted to be allowed out of the library for more than temporary use can be plainly marked to distinguish them from those that may go out for a longer time.

This method allows all standard materials on a subject to be logically classified, and avoids separating books in the same class on the purely artificial lines of circulating and non-circulating as is commonly done to create a reference library, as distinguished from a circulating collection. The educational value of keeping together all open-shelf books of the same class more than outweighs the possible difficulty some readers might find in distinguishing between books that may circulate and those that may not, when standing side by side.

After all, the library that must provide for the diversified needs of a reading community cannot determine in advance, when placing books on the open reference shelves, whether a particular book will be so constantly needed as to call for restriction. Only experience with individual books can determine, in many cases, the freedom of use allowed in other places than the one to which it is assigned. All the theory that this book is for reference and that one for reading may be of no use when experience enters into the case *).

Value of public documents.

The average librarian is aware that public documents contain much valuable information, but they are considered such a difficult class of books to use that only as a last resort are they consulted. In the large library such information as is called for can usually be readily obtained elsewhere. In the small library the collection is apt to be small or poorly selected, and the librarian may have no ready way of knowing what is needed or how it can be obtained. As a result the possibilities of a document collection have been largely overlooked, and important contributions to the world's literature of knowledge have been ignored as useless or unusable.

To many a mind, public documents bring up the thought of dry statistics and heavy compilations of uninteresting facts. They are regarded as mines in which the laborious student must delve for raw materials. Such an impression, however, is not founded upon a knowledge of their contents. As a matter of fact, they contain interesting and well-digested information upon an extremely wide variety of subjects and for all classes of readers.

For work with high school debating teams, the documents are a never failing resource. Important reports upon topics of current interest can be readily obtained, and it may be desirable in many libraries to build up a special collection of such documents to be loaned to debaters as needed. Club women may be interested in basketry, bead work or pottery and can here find popular articles with illustrations of unusual excellence.

In the field of American history no considerable work can be done without recourse to the United States public documents. Were

*) **Austen, Willard.** Principles governing the selection of a reference collection in a university library. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 3: 375-77.

Mr. **Austen** is librarian of Cornell University.

all other books and records destroyed, it would be possible from the federal documents alone to rewrite a fairly comprehensive history of the United States from the adoption of the Constitution to the present time.

Public documents are in reality of practical value to practical people in nearly all vocations of life. Not only are they useful for the bare facts which they contain, but they are frequently marked by a style and literary quality of high rank. Many of our government officers have been writers of merit. Such orators as Webster, Clay, Calhoun, and Chauncey M. Depew; such thinkers as Henry Barnard, William T. Harris, and Carroll D. Wright; such authors as Hawthorne, Irving, Bayard Taylor, Lowell and John Hay have all added their quota to the enrichment of the federal archives. It were a misapprehension indeed to brand a book as dull or uninteresting because it contains the stamp of the Government Printing Office.

The document collection may be likened to an unknown country through which personally conducted excursions should be offered. Armed with indexes and check-lists, the librarian can lead the student through navigable inlets, up the gentle slopes and across cleared spaces. But indexes alone are inadequate, and a general acquaintance of the lay of the land is necessary in blazing trails through the denser forests. Personal familiarity on the part of the librarian is essential to the large usefulness of a collection of public documents. No amount of hearsay of systems and devices will take the place or render the service of first hand information on the part of the librarian, for with the personal familiarity comes an enthusiasm that personal contact alone can give.

To be able to trace an article from the designation to the document is only a beginning. Public documents should be exploited as thoughtfully and enticingly as any other class of books. When a patron comes to the library, as much pains should be taken to find the book that fits him as is taken by the shoe-dealer or the clothier in serving his customers. Here is a brand of literature that comes in a great variety of lengths and sizes. Indeed, the librarian will be able to fit many who never come to the library, and hence the need of advertising his wares.

In any community, however, the library is called upon for information which it does not possess. Especially is this true of the small library where the funds are as limited as the books. The wide field covered by public documents combined with the fact that they can usually be obtained gratis, should appeal to such libraries with

special force. For developing and building up a strong store of usable knowledge, public documents form a library resource not to be neglected. With a small outlay of time and postage, the librarian can bring to command a surprising amount of information. From this source alone he can organize a bureau of information which people will be glad to consult and which they will be quick to support. Higher education became popular and well supported when through scientific and technical instruction it proved itself economic and financially valuable. Thus the public library, as it demonstrates its usefulness to useful people, will come to be regarded as a good business proposition.

The majority of library patrons choose to own for themselves the inspirational books which to them represent the literature of power. Few, however, can afford to buy and house such a collection of reference books as will adequately meet the individual needs of a progressive people. It is the province of a public library to collect largely of the literature of knowledge. In augmenting the capital stock of such a co-operative institution, the alert librarian will keenly appreciate the immense possibilities of public documents as a library resource.

The librarian who does not appreciate the generosity of the federal government in printing and distributing its publications to educational institutions, should at least be cautious of his criticism. There is at present a strong movement toward retrenchment in public printing. In the hand of a money-saving Congress, the unguarded utterances and unappreciative attitude of a few librarians might work a serious and permanent injury to the libraries of the whole country *).

Using government publications.

The present writer has been for a number of years in a position to watch very closely the influx of Government documents into a large depository library — the Grosvenor Library of Buffalo, New York, and to follow the constant effort to dispose of them. In addition there has been the question of how to bring them to the service of the public most readily and fully. Much attention, time

*) **Smith, Charles W.** Public documents as a library resource. *Library journal*, 32: 195-198.

Mr. **Smith** is associate librarian, University of Washington.

and labor have been given to this. To go over the story of past conditions, experiments and expedients is not necessary. The day can not be long ago when a decided change had to be made. Fortunately the experience of a number of years in trying to reach the fullest use of the government documents had suggested what appeared to be a way to meet the difficulty and to meet it successfully. Indeed the new scheme which was tried proved at once to be practical and was soon seen to be better in its working than any which had been employed before.

For more than five years an attempt had been made to keep up a regular card catalog with Library of Congress cards. When the Grosvenor became a depository library some fifteen years ago an order was sent to Washington for all the series and other cards which appeared to be needful. As a matter of fact this resulted in the acquisition of a mass of cards of which very many were unserviceable, and many of which were put aside because the documents for them had not come, or because there was not time to use them. This, however, was not the reason for the abandonment of this method. The surplus might have been reduced. There were other considerations of greater importance.

As every one knows the Government publishes the *Monthly Catalogue of United States Documents*. At the end of June each year there is included in the issue a very full index of the author, title and subject matter of the documents published during the preceding twelve months. The serial publications are very fully analyzed. This yearly index serves not only as a complete guide to the documents, but to the subjects treated. When any matter had to be looked up and there was no definite certainty of where the facts were to be found recourse was had to this catalogue. The indexes were run over beginning with the latest and running backward. Very often something in connection with the subject gave some hint of the period of publication. Except in the case of definite numbers of serial publications this was found to be the quickest and the most satisfactory course to follow. The thought, thereupon, occurred to the writer that since this was the actual practice in the way of using the documents there was no reason why it might not be carried further. What had proved serviceable in casual use might be regulated and worked out into an established system. This was undertaken and the result has turned out better even than was at first expected. For one thing, as soon as the method was adopted a very considerable number of documents which had been gathering

and for which no cards had come could be placed on the shelves with the certainty of being easily found.

The idea was to use the Monthly Catalogues as a library catalog. The procedure was as follows: The number assigned to the document was written on the margin of the Monthly Catalogue opposite the entry of the document. The document was then put away in the stack room where it belonged. Afterward all that was necessary to do to find it was to refer to the index. There would be a reference to the document by subject and title and by the department or bureau issuing it. Turning to the page on which it was recorded the number could be found. For this purpose the Superintendent of Documents' classification has been taken. In the case where the publication is a numbered one of a regular series a line is drawn under the number and the name of the series. To help in this connection a small card catalog is used. In it are placed cards with the names and numbers of all serial publications. When the name of the series is obtained from the printed Monthly Catalogue this can be found in the list of serials and the document obtained from the shelves. If the document is one which has been published since the last index appeared the subject will generally indicate in what department the paper or document is to be found, and instead of referring to the index separate monthly publications are then consulted. The method makes possible the marking and putting away of almost the latest documents, for the Monthly Catalogue keeps up very closely with the distribution of the documents to the depository libraries.

To look up all that has been published by the Government on any subject only necessitates running through the indexes of the different years which does not take long and which gives much fuller information than could be gained from any incomplete and inadequate catalog. For example, many subjects are treated in special articles for which the Library had not been accustomed to receive any cards. An instance occurred recently. A request came by telephone for information as to the use of cyanide gas. A member of the firm owning a large elevator wished to get some facts as to the destruction of insects by this means. A few minutes search disclosed two entries in the index to the Monthly Catalogue of United States Documents, July, 1915 — June, 1916.

"Cyanide gas; destruction of mosquitoes, fleas, etc.; fumigation of U. S. S. Tennessee by cyanide methods."

The first referred to an article in the Public Health Reports and the second to a paper in the Naval Medical Bulletin. In neither

case would there have been cards in the card catalog and the information would not have been available unless the Monthly Catalogue had been used. When in searching for information, as in this case, the use of the printed catalogue was essential, its regular use in all cases seemed advisable.

The method is very simple. The numbers of the catalogue are bound and the volumes kept together where they may be consulted by the public. All that is needed is to look up any author, department, or subject as can easily be explained. Then the attendant can quickly bring the desired document.

To recapitulate: The time saved in the typewriting of cards and filing them is very great. The lessening in expense is considerable. A catalogue made in this way by using the Monthly Catalogue of Government Documents is much more exhaustive and more fully up to date. There are other reasons of hardly less weight which have justified the adoption of the methods just described.

Of course the publications of the Congressional Series cannot be treated in this manner, or rather the same means cannot be used, since the documents are not listed in the Monthly Catalogue. However, by a similar use of the Document Index (Consolidated Index) giving the contents of the Congressional set of each Congress, a like result can be obtained and in precisely the same way. What would be better not only for the Congressional documents, but for the other United States publications would be to use the Catalogue of Public Documents (Comprehensive Index of Public Documents), the large volumes, published for the different Congresses and "all Departments of the Government of the United States". These, however, are only issued at intervals of two or three years and a record of documents cannot be quickly made. The best way would be to transfer the records made in the Monthly Catalogue and the Document Index (Consolidated Index) to the Catalogue of Public Documents as the volumes appear and this may be ultimately done by the Grosvenor.

The writer would like to give a more elaborate description of the method employed, but hesitates about taking more space. One thing may be said and that is that it would seem to be a good scheme for smaller libraries, or those which are not depositories. The subscription to the Monthly Catalogue is only fifty cents a year. With the use of it there is not only means of having a record of what Government documents are in any particular library, and where they may be found on the shelves, but also what Government

documents on any particular subject are published. They can be obtained if wished from Washington by the patrons of the library. The suggestion is made that two copies of the Catalogue might be advantageous, one for use as a catalogue by the cataloguer and another for the use of the public. Then if one volume is lost or destroyed the work on it would not have been in vain. The other would always be accessible.

Two objections to the plan which seem likely to be made should perhaps be answered more fully than has been done by what has been written. The criticism that looking back through the volume of catalogues by years needs time, has already been met by the explanation that in almost all cases some fact narrows the search. What however is more important is the assurance that although somewhat more time has been used in such a search, nothing has been missed. As has been already said, a card catalogue of government documents which is absolutely complete would be impossible in almost any library because of its size. Moreover the expense in money and the expenditure in time in making such a catalogue would be a greater loss for a library than the slight loss of time in going over the bound monthly catalogues, and the monthly catalogues form a really complete catalogue.

In regard to what may be said about the fact that the printed catalogues and indexes come some time after the documents and that therefore the documents cannot be catalogued at once, this reply can be given. In many cases the cards were not received until as long after the documents as happens with the printed books.

No claim is made that the plan now in use by the Grosvenor Library is perfect. The present writer and the Library would be glad to have suggestions and would like to know what has been the experience of anyone working along the same lines. The only plea made is that the Grosvenor plan has been found after trial to be satisfactory. The hope is entertained that it may be of use to others *).

*) **Hibbard George**. A new way of dealing with Government Documents. Library journal, 46: 490-492.

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Reference problems of the state library.

It is the purpose of this paper to characterize briefly some of the features of reference work peculiar to the state library. The province of the state library is a limited one. There are first the positive limitations set by the legislature in the statutes creating and governing the library. There is a limitation involved in inadequate appropriations. There is a limitation implied in the tax policy of the state, as the tendency in taxation seems to be for the state to restrict its revenues to indirect taxation — corporations, inheritance, excise, transfer taxes and the like, delegating to the local community its taxing power over personal property and real estate. There is also the limitation implied in the American theory of local autonomy by which the central government tends to restrict itself to activities that local communities cannot carry on efficiently or economically.

The inferences of these limitations are obvious. The state library may not act as a circulating or popular library. It may not contain any large proportion of popular books, general literature, or books which local libraries may reasonably be expected to supply. It must be distinctly a special library for consultation and research, developing special collections and special strength as the legislature may direct and as the legitimate demands on it may necessitate.

We are led then to a consideration of the limits set by legislation to the activities of the state library, and in this matter I shall use the New York state library as a text.

The Legislature and the various library boards have uniformly directed that the New York state library be primarily a workshop for the Legislature, State departments and courts and that its main collections be determined by the needs of these departments. In its early years it was open only during the sessions of the Legislature and courts ...

In 1835, the library contained 5,000 volumes and besides law contained "chiefly standard works in American history, politics and legislation with such foreign publications of general interest as are not usually found in our society and individual libraries". Thus early does the conception of the State library as a complementary appear.

In 1878, the State librarian, Dr. Holmes, made a valuable report to the Regents on the "Future development of the State library". He reviewed the history of the library, described its

resources as one of the most complete in the country in law, American history, and as being abundantly supplied with English, Dutch and European history, with representative collections of standard English literature and ancient and modern languages.

In reference to this report the special committee of the Regents recommended a policy which in the main followed the suggestions of the librarian and which in its essential features was adopted by the whole board. For the law library they recommended approximate completeness in American law and liberal purchases in international and foreign law. For the general department they were unwilling to limit the library to a policy which would strictly exclude purchases outside the field of legislation and American history, while agreeing heartily with the policy of special development and preference in these fields.

As to the use of the library, they considered that its primary duty was to the state departments and officers, that its next duty was to special investigators and students, that the library was in no sense a popular one, and that its use as a circulating library for the city of Albany was inconsistent with the purpose for which it was founded and maintained.

The primary function of the State library remains the same, i. e., a library of consultation and research for the use of all branches of the state government, legislative, judicial, executive and administrative. This function is no narrow one, at least in a state like New York, where the centralization and elaboration of governmental activities have gone far and includes large engineering and scientific undertakings and a broad system of control of public utilities, large control of local activities, centralized supervision of education and the like.

The second reference function of the library is the preservation of the public records and history of the state. The history collection should contain all material and records necessary for the most exhaustive historical study of the State or any of its parts. It should be especially rich in source material, manuscripts, public records, maps and should include a large collection of local state history, state biography, state family history, newspapers and illustrative material.

Specialization in reference work will be determined by the degree of the specialization of the library itself and the extent of the use of the collections. In a well equipped library the following may be considered normal; a law librarian, a legislative reference librarian, curator of public documents, an archivist who shall have

charge of the public records, their custody, searching, editing, calendaring, and publishing, and a specialist in technology and science. These specialists will have large advisory power in book selection, will be responsible for the efficiency of their departments, have charge of correspondence relating to their special fields, develop the special indices and reference methods and superintend the bibliographic work in their respective departments.

Bibliographic work will naturally be designed primarily to promote the efficiency of the library service. Checklists of newspapers in the library, catalogs or checklists of local history, guides to state and local records, calendaring, translating, and editing of manuscripts, catalogs of special collections are typical.

Reference work with state officials presents difficulties not in evidence in other types of libraries. The reference staff must hold before itself the ideal of contributing a large impulse toward efficient government. They will appreciate the magnitude of the service they might render and will deplore the gulf that sometimes seems fixed between them and the state official. It is their part to collect all information bearing on the subjects of governmental activity and the problems of legislation, to provide indices and bibliographical apparatus to make this readily if not immediately available and to digest, abstract and otherwise predigest much of this material for official use, and in all ways to be of service to the State.

While the character of the collections of the library must necessarily be determined by the needs of state officials, the use of the collections should not be limited to them. The library should present such opportunities for studies in its special fields, collections so complete, indices and catalogs so useful, that special students in these fields would frequently be attracted to it. The field of its special collections should be so well known that all advanced students, all research libraries and all libraries of the state would know approximately what they might expect to find in it. All inquiries, bibliographic or other in these fields, from any reputable source should receive careful and full attention.

But there is a much further extension of reference work desirable. The state library often, as in New York, has the added function of an advisory and supervisory board with the power of inspection and registration of the libraries of the state, grants state subsidies, assists local libraries in book selection, and operates a system of traveling libraries. This brings the state library into close

touch with all the libraries, colleges, schools, and study clubs of the entire state. The state library should desire to develop the maximum of co-operation with the local libraries, and offer to supplement their limited collections by liberal loans. It should desire, in so far as it may be able to do so, to enable each local library to meet effectively the demands of the special student. It should wish every person engaged in special research in the state to know that the collections of the State library stand back of each local library and that wherever practicable needed books from the larger collection may be had.

This service is in one aspect an extension of research material to the investigators over the entire state and in its other aspect a supplementing of the local library to meet the special, occasional demands for that class of materials which only the large library can afford to possess.

As a part of the State education department, the New York state library feels under particular obligation to the colleges and the schools of the state. We do not expect to be of much service to a great institution like Columbia or Cornell but to the small colleges and the high schools, we see no immediate limit of possible service. We hope also in some way to bring the teachers of the state and our education collection into closer touch; — and we see further possibilities*).

Bill drafting and legislative bureaus.

Assistance in the framing of legislation given by existing agencies falls under two heads, legislative reference service, or the work¹ of collecting material throwing light on the subject matter of legislation, and drafting service.

The legislative reference service, now actually carried on in several states, demonstrates that it is entirely practicable to collect, classify, digest, and index, prior to a session of a legislature, all kinds of material bearing on practically all subjects likely to become subjects of actual legislation at the session. This material, where the bureau is well run, includes not only books and pamphlets, such as might be found in an ordinary library, but also copies of bills

*) **Tolman, F. L.** The reference problem of the state library. A. L. A. Bulletin, 2: 334-338.

Mr. **Tolman** is reference librarian, New York State Library.

introduced into the various state legislatures and laws which have been enacted in this and foreign countries, and other printed materials relating to the operation of such laws or the conditions creating a need for them. Indeed, on most subjects of possible legislation, the difficulty is not to find material, but to arrange the large mass of available material so as to make its efficient use practical. That such service has great possibilities of usefulness is evident, especially where the service is directly contributory to the drafting service, a matter to be presently explained. The increasing complication of our industrial, social, and governmental administrative problems renders it necessary, if the discussion of matters pertaining to legislation is to proceed in a reasonably intelligent manner, that systematic effort be expended on the collection and arrangement of material bearing on current matters of public discussion likely to become the subject of legislative enactment. A central agency to furnish such service does not take the place of special commissions or committees created to investigate particular subjects and recommend legislation. The object of the central reference service should be to assist such bodies, as well as individual members of the legislature and others desiring information pertaining to subjects of legislation.

Existing agencies also demonstrate that it is possible to provide expert drafting service for the more important measures and some assistance in the drafting of all bills introduced. The number of bills, for which expert drafting assistance can be furnished, would appear to be merely a question of the size of the force and the amount of the appropriation for its support. Your committee, therefore, believes that it is entirely practical to establish, in connection with any legislature, a permanent agency capable of giving expert drafting assistance for all bills introduced, and they urge the association to place itself on record as favoring such an agency as the most practical means of bringing about scientific methods of legislation — that is to say, methods of drafting statutes which will secure:

- (1) Conformity to constitutional requirements.
- (2) Adequacy of the provisions of the law to its purpose.
- (3) Coordination with the existing law.
- (4) The utmost simplicity of form consistent with certainty.

The technical shortcomings of our statutes are chiefly due to the fact that they come from so many hands working without supervision and without a concerted plan.

A distinct drafting service will produce the one thing indispensable to scientific legislation — a professional attitude of mind, which means training for the work, devotion to it, and a reputation at stake in its proper execution, without which a high quality of workmanship is as unlikely in legislation as in any other work.

The organization of the two services, legislative reference and legislative drafting, and their relation to each other, are important factors in the usefulness of the results obtained from the establishment of the service. The agencies now existing, considered from the point of view of organization, fall into two classes; those in which the legislative reference work and the bill drafting are provided for in a single permanent bureau as in Wisconsin, Indiana, and Pennsylvania, and those in which the legislative reference work is carried on by the state library or one of its divisions, the drafting work being done by persons appointed by and operating under the direct control of the legislature, as in New York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts. Your committee does not feel that they are as yet in a position to express an opinion on the relative merits of either form of organization. They are, however, of the opinion that the reference service should be so organized and operated as to be directly contributory to the drafting service, and that all questions of organization of the two services, their physical location and the relation of the reference work to the other ends than the drafting of bills, as, for instance, supplying to legislators and others material for the discussion of pending or possible legislation, should be decided with this fundamental principle in mind. Where, as in New York, the reference service is not used by the drafting department, comparatively little use of the reference service is made by members of the legislature. Again, if the drafting service makes no use of the reference service, the drafting service is necessarily confined to minor matters of form ...

Your committee believe that the establishment of permanent reference and drafting services and the general use of a harmonious body of principles relating to the science of legislative drafting will do much to prevent the enactment by legislatures of unconstitutional, obscure, and otherwise defective legislation ...

The present report is chiefly a study of agencies belonging to the first class as in Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, New York, Wisconsin, Indiana, Pennsylvania, together with one belonging to the second class, namely, the department of legislative reference

at Baltimore, Md. The actual operation of these bureaus was investigated while the legislatures were in session, except in Indiana and Maryland.

In each of the above-named states provision is made for legislative reference work, using this term to denote the collecting, classifying, digesting, and indexing of data of all sorts bearing upon legislation so as to make it effectively serviceable to members of the legislature and others. This material includes not only books and pamphlets such as are available in an ordinary library, but, in addition, bills introduced in the various state legislatures and separate copies of laws enacted by them or by foreign parliaments, magazine articles and newspaper clippings separately mounted, lists of references and digests (printed, multigraphed or typewritten), and sometimes letters containing opinions of specialists, all of this material being closely classified by subject on shelves, in pamphlet boxes, or in vertical files, for quick reference when inquiry is made involving its use . . .

Inquiry is generally made of the members of the state legislature soon after election to ascertain the subjects in which they are likely to be interested during the session in order that material may be available when they call for it in the reference rooms. The assistants engaged in this work include persons with library training, stenographers, general clerical help, and in addition usually one or more assistants trained in economics and political science. The principal object is to furnish reliable information as to the laws on any subject enacted or proposed in other states and countries, and whatever information is available regarding the interpretation and administration of those actually in operation, statistical and other printed data showing the economic conditions which have to be taken into account in the preparation of legislation, as well as public opinion, popular discussion and the views of experts who have given special attention to various questions of legislation *).

*) Bill drafting and legislative reference bureaus — Report of the Special Committee on Legislative Drafting of the American Bar Association, September 1913. Washington, Gov't Printing Office, 1913.

Extracts from the above Report.

Using a library.

In his essay on "Books and Libraries", James Russell Lowell writes with cheerful optimism: "All that is primarily needful in order to use a library is the ability to read". The phrase is so neat and so plausible that it is a pity that, for practical purposes, it is more likely to prove false than true, — as false, let us say, as that knowing how to drive a nail is all that is necessary to make a good carpenter. As a matter of fact, and the first librarian that you have a chance to talk with will promptly agree, there are a good many people who never have learned and never will learn even the rudiments of the art of using a library, — that is, of so using it as to get from it just the special knowledge that they are seeking, and, what is more, get it in a minimum of time. Lowell, of course, was speaking purely from the standpoint of a man of letters: he was thinking, not of any one kind of library, public or private, general or technical, but just of libraries in the abstract, congregations of worthy books, among which any person with the "ability to read", plus an inborn instinct for what is good in literature, may browse at will and expand his mind.

But it is not at all in this sense that the phrase, *How to Use a Library*, is employed in the present paper. It has been so often said that the only way ever to know a book is to own it, that to repeat it here savors of triteness; yet it is so true, that we may say unhesitatingly that the use of a library in Lowell's sense of the term is really the use of one's own private library, — and, what is more, one's use of it as a pastime and not a business. But to such of us as practice the craft of writing, books are the indispensable tools of our trade; and the best, the largest, the most easily available tool chest is the nearest public library. If we are wise craftsmen, we familiarize ourselves with these tools in advance, and do not wait until such time as we may be in need of a special form of intellectual auger or chisel.

Regarding the widespread helplessness on the part of the general public to find what they want or even to explain what their wants are, an amiable gentleman at the New York Public Library, who has had years of practice in removing stumbling-blocks of this sort, relieved his mind quite freely a few days ago: "So few people know what they want", he said emphatically, "that the first question I ask them when they beg me to help them to find a certain book, is, 'What do you want it for? What are you trying to find out?'"

And in a large proportion of cases, the book they ask for proves to be not at all the one that they really wanted. I am not thinking of mere blunders of titles, although frequently these give us a good deal of trouble, along with some little amusement. I recall, for instance, a young woman who lately asked us for a novel entitled "Two Halves and Two Wholes", and it needed a happy inspiration to discover that what she really wanted was *To Have and To Hold*. A somewhat serious mistake gave our cataloguing department an hour or two of hard work only this morning: an irate personage came to the desk to complain that a book, one that he needed very badly, one that he knew that the library owned, because he had called for it and received it several times in the past, had vanished completely from the catalogue. It was, he explained, Randolph's *History of the University of Virginia*. He was correct about there being no such book in the catalogue, either under *Randolph* or *Virginia*. It was eventually found where it belonged, under *University*, Randolph was not the author, but only the publisher, the authors being Messrs. Jefferson and Cahill.

While this conversation was in progress, a pleasant-faced but somewhat harassed young woman, manipulating a card catalogue, found time to interject a volunteer comment: "We would not mind the blunders so much", she said, "if readers were not so unreasonable in their demands upon us for research work: many of them expect us to find their books and then do the reading for them". She interrupted herself, to give attention to a middle-aged, nervous-mannered man, who began somewhat uncertainly: "I wonder whether, — that is," he concluded jerkily, "I want some books on China, — yes, China, — you know!" "Can you tell me what sort of books you want on China?" she encouraged him. "You see we have a good many books on China so if you could tell me what you are looking up —" "Oh, just books on China, books with pictures of, oh gates and pagodas, and oh, you know, that's it, books with pictures". "I will try to have a list ready for you the next time you come in", said the girl patiently. "No don't do that", said the man. "I am too busy myself. Just look them over and take notes, yes, that's it, take notes, so that you can tell me about them". He drifted out, and the girl glanced at us in weary triumph, as if to say, "Didn't I tell you so?"

This sort of unreasonableness on the part of the public is not an isolated case. One of the assistants in the library of a small suburban city, not many miles from New York, said in a burst of

confidence: "The women's clubs give us the most trouble: there is the Tuesday Club, the Friday Club and the Fortnightly Club, — and every one of them sends its programme at the beginning of the season: and every club member, when the times comes to write her paper, expects us to have all the books and magazine articles ready for her, — and in some cases to do nearly all the work short of the actual writing". Evidently we have come a long way from the time that Lowell speaks of when "the duty of the librarian was considered that of a watch-dog, to keep people as much as possible from books and to hand them over to his successor as little worn as he could!"

Of course there are two sides to every question, and ignorance is not always confined to the reader. Mr. Augustine Birrell tells with obvious relish a personal experience, as shedding light upon the unsatisfactory conditions prevailing in some libraries in the remoter towns of England. It occurred on a Calais boat, and the speaker was a certain world-famed military officer: "When he understood that I had some connection with the Library Association, he exclaimed: "Why you're just the man I want; I have been anxious of late about my man, old Atkins. You see the old boy with a stoop, sheltering behind the funnel. Poor old beggar! quite past his work, but faithful as a dog. It has just occurred to me that if you could shove him into some snug library in the country, I'd be awfully grateful to you. His one fault is a fondness for reading, and so a library would be just the thing!"

It would be a base slander upon our many excellent American librarians even to hint that their numbers are ever recruited from the ranks of "Old Atkins"; but, on the other hand, it is well to remember that no librarian is infallible. It was Anatole France who once in a museum asked a scientist some question anent a certain interesting exhibit in one of the show-cases, and received from the scientist the curt reply that it did not happen to be in his show-case. Librarians are like scientists in this respect: it is never safe to ask them questions about anything outside of their show-case. Not many months ago the present writer toiled down, through a drenching rain, to the old Astor Library, in order to enquire which of the local branches had the most complete collection of French fiction. Two branches were named, the more convenient of which happened to be that at 145th Street. Upon applying there, the writer faced a much puzzled attendant, who deprecatingly led the way to the French shelf; it contained seven or eight dilapidated and

disconsolate volumes, the first half of *Les Trois Mousquetaires*, and of *Les Misérables*, selected poems of Lamartine, a few school texts and a prayer book. They were the negligible residue of a large collection that had been removed to another branch nearly a year previous.

But to come to the point: admitting that a large proportion of readers, if not actually helpless in a library, are at least often perplexed, and waste valuable hours in gleaning some fragment of information that ought to have required as many minutes, — what can they do about it? Are there any convenient rules of thumb, so to speak, any serviceable suggestions for saving time, any method for making the library more useful, short of prolonged and patient grubbing in it?

The answer is simple enough: There are certain things which even the most unbookish person may readily learn, if he will only take a little time and trouble. And these things may all be conveniently classified under two heads: To learn, first of all, what library facilities lie within reach; secondly, how to get the best service out of catalogues, indexes, cyclopedias, and all those similar short cuts to information that, to quote Lowell once more, supply the beginner, without cost, with "at least one of the results of thorough scholarship, the knowing where to look for what he wants".

And, first, regarding our library facilities, their number and their location. Of course, the amount of time and trouble it requires to familiarize yourself with them varies largely, according as you live in a country town or a large city. Yet, in either case the problem offered is much the same. There is probably some one library of some kind or other quite near at hand; there must be others, better equipped, within a radius not wholly prohibitory; and beyond these, are the bigger centres of learning which, on occasion, might be well worth a railroad journey of a few hours. This brings to mind the case of a writer of some distinction, who has reduced the knowledge of library facilities pretty near to an exact science, Mr. Edward Porritt, author of an authoritative work on the history of English parliamentary reform. This work, in two massive volumes, was written during the course of ten years in a small village in the heart of Connecticut. Mr. Porritt, who is an Englishman, has expressed his cordial admiration, both in private conversation and in print, concerning the courtesy, the convenience, and the resources of American libraries. He found that in a work of such magnitude as his, on a purely British subject, requiring reference to hundreds of rare government records, it was possible to obtain all needful

material in this country, and what is more, to have access to it with far less official red tape than in England. But to do this, it was essential to cultivate his special knowledge of the resources of each and every library within his reach: what the library in the Capitol at Hartford had to offer, and how far the Historical Society could supplement it; which line of books would necessitate a day's outing to New Haven, and what greater rarities had to be sought at long intervals either in Boston or at the Congressional Library at Washington.

This same general principle of becoming acquainted with the library resources of your own town applies as well whether your work is on a big scale or a small. It is a constant source of surprise to find how many members of the literary and artistic brotherhood, within the City of New York, have never heard of certain special libraries that would be peculiarly useful to them and which are accessible with practically no formalities. It was only last week that a young magazine illustrator was deploring the fact that he had ransacked the city unsuccessfully in search of pictures that would furnish him with details of colour and design of certain old military uniforms. Some one present ventured to ask if he had looked in the Avery Library at Columbia University. It is by no means certain that he would have found there what he sought; but at least the interesting fact was elicited that the young illustrator had never heard of the Avery Library. And at least three instances come to mind of people who within the past year were seeking helplessly for some Spanish book, and were unaware of the existence of the admirable collection of the Hispanic Society of America at 156th Street and Broadway.

But it is not enough merely to become acquainted with the contents of the different libraries; an even more important matter is that of relative convenience and expedition. The first thing to find out in any library is in regard to the condition under which the books may be used; whether readers may have access directly to the stacks; whether books may be taken from the library building; and what are the nature and extent of the books on the shelves reserved for free consultation. A few specific cases, based on personal experience in the New York libraries, will serve to accentuate the utility of this sort of knowledge.

The New York Public Library has in its main reading-room five or six shelves accessible from the main floor and as many more from the gallery. These shelves run entirely around this vast room and form an aggregate of several thousand feet of shelving.

Consequently they offer immediate access, without the formality of a card or a signature, to a collection of reference books not to be duplicated anywhere in the city. It is well worth spending an hour or two in completing the circuit of these shelves and making mental memoranda of the various classes of books therein comprised. The facilities for genealogical and historical research are exceptionally rich. Or again, the prospective traveller who wishes to plan his European trip has only to ascend a staircase to a certain little alcove, and there he will find, ready to his hand, all imaginable *Baedekers* and *Murrays*, past and present. But supposing that our immediate task, instead of demanding any of the above-mentioned books, requires a patient search through the back volumes of the *Academy*, the *Spectator* and the *Saturday Review*. In this case it would be wanton waste of time to go to the Public Library, because the files of these magazines are securely locked away in the stacks and are available only upon the usual signed application and some patient waiting. The Columbia, on the contrary, has a separate magazine room with complete files of thirty or forty of the leading periodicals to be taken freely from the shelves, and quite as many more in the basement, access to which may be obtained through no very great formality. In other respects, also, the Columbia free consultation shelves offer a good many facilities. But mention of them brings to mind one little point which deserves a certain amount of emphasis, namely, the value of a good index.

The first great principle, in learning to use a library, is to acquire the knack of saving time. Between two libraries equally well equipped, choose the one whose consultation shelves offer the ampler resources. And, in deciding this question of comparative advantage, do not disregard the important little question whether the editions available on the reference shelves are equipped with a good subject index. Just for the sake of an example the present writer will confess that the citation from Lowell which heads this article lurked in very uncertain form somewhere in the back of his brain. It had to be tracked down and verified, and that, too, with no loss of time. To search through the six volumes of Lowell's essays would, without exceptional luck, be a matter of an hour or two; but fortunately the sixth volume of his collected works has a most commendable subject index, — thanks to which the citation in question was run to earth in less than a minute and a half. Undoubtedly a day will come when some precious time will be saved by a mental note duly recorded that the edition of Samuel

Johnson on the Columbia shelves, the Literary Club Edition, limited to seven hundred and fifty sets, is devoid of an index; and the same is true of their Dent Edition of Hazlitt. The Columbia Pope, on the contrary, like the Swift (Bohn Library), are admirably equipped, the index in the latter case running to upward of a hundred and seventy pages.

But let us suppose, for the sake of an argument, that we have persuaded some amiable editor that he would like us to compile an article on the colour of the heroine's eyes in modern fiction, or her favourite composer, or the way she does her hair and puts on her gloves, — in short, any sort of an article that requires a cursory glance through several score of novels. Now to go to any one of the large city libraries means a formidable expenditure of time, — and even with the best sort of luck we would be told that a good half of the books we most needed were in use. But there happens to be a very cosy and well-equipped little library in a suburban town, which may be readily reached by trolley in about an hour, and which offers the several advantages of free access to all the books, a compact and well-chosen fiction section, and a minimum of noise and confusion. The loss of time in coming and going is as nothing in comparison to the gain in time by having precisely what one wants all within arm's reach. It is possible on occasion to consult and glean material from over a hundred volumes in the course of one working morning.

These suggestions are more or less tentative. They are the outcome of personal experience and represent, not so much practical rules, as a habit of thought. They may perhaps be best summed up in this one little rule: In all your library work, consider every bit of stray knowledge as to the location and the contents of books which you may, sooner or later, find useful, as a valuable part of your mental equipment, and something to be treasured accordingly*)

Work in a branch library.

Some three years ago the Brooklyn Public Library established a branch in Brownsville, the Ghetto district of Brooklyn, N. Y., by taking over a small library that had been maintained by the Hebrew Educational Society. Its growth during the trying period of

*) Winter, Calvin. How to use a library. The Bookman, 34: 504-508.

reorganization has been so abnormal and its location so unsuitable, that scant opportunity has been left to attend to more than the physical side of the work. The library is interesting therefore, not for the work it has been able to do, but for its unique district and peculiar clientele.

Brownsville differs from other Jewish districts of New York City in containing a nearly homogenous population. In the great "East Side" of Manhattan the people are broken up into groups of Russian Jews, Polish Jews, Roumanian Jews, Lithuanian Jews, etc., but in Brownsville, where the population is 98% Jewish, the Russian Jews make up about 90% of the total. The result is a Russian Jewish community of nearly 90,000 souls, with community life and community interest. It has its own board of trade and in the Hebrew Educational Society its own settlement house, but though the city has provided some eight or ten public schools, it has as yet no high school and but one branch library. This community is not the result of a slow, steady growth, but rather has grown up overnight and is in all essentials new. New, in that six or seven years ago, before the opening of the Williamsburg bridge permitted the teeming ghetto of Manhattan to pour some of its overflow into Brooklyn, Brownsville was but a barren suburb part of the sparsely settled East New York. And new, in that its inhabitants have been in America but a short time varying from a month to fifteen years.

The newness of the people shows in their attitude toward our institutions. Although every Russian Jew is at heart an earnest student and a lover of books, the outrageous conditions under which he has been forced to live in Russia bring him here with little knowledge of other books than the Bible and the Talmud; indeed, in the rural districts the word book, especially to the women, means little more than Bible. Many mothers, therefore, on their arrival here are suspicious of all reading matter and though soon grasping the idea of the public school, show no understanding of the public library and do not encourage their children to use it. With the rising generation it is different. The children often think it is as obligatory to come to the library as it is to the school, and are sorely disappointed when their parents will not help them to become members. Frequently when failing to interest their parents, they will sign their mother's or father's name to a note of application, for by one means or another they must "take themselves in the library". In a few cases there is deliberate forgery, but more often these false signatures are due to the inability of the parents to write English

and to the belief that what the library requires is merely the name of the parent. Young children do not appreciate the responsibility an endorsement represents and, moreover, are frequently instructed by their parents to write the names themselves.

Wherever proper names are used a general looseness seems a characteristic of the district. Scarcely two adults in fifty will give more than an initial when asked for their full names; not many more will always spell their own names the same way, and for every member of a family to spell the family name alike is unusual. A girl may start life as Rebecca Liffschutz, then become Beckie Liphschutz, and end to the library's confusion as Beatrice Lipschitz. This happens chiefly because the people think of the name in their vernacular and the way in which it is transliterated or translated is an unimportant detail. To them, however spelled, it is always the same name. Moreover, when they first arrive and begin to learn our characters they spell their names phonetically, not becoming acquainted with the vagaries of English spelling until much later. With children much of the trouble is due to anglicizing a foreign name, e. g., changing Rozinsky into Rosen, and to the carelessness of the school teacher who insists that a child spell his name a certain way without first discovering how his father spells it.

To one beginning work in a poor foreign district many habits of the people seem particularly objectionable that later become better understood. For example, the practice of many men of coming to the library and failing to remove their hats; or instead of keeping to the right, the trying of some to force an exit where others are entering; or being untidy in appearance; or apparently careless in the handling of public property. But after some time it is recognized that the unpleasant characteristics arise from the fact that many social ideals of these people are different from ours; that in some cases they have never been able to have any. Later on it is realized that the socialist speaks truth when he contends that "the chief trouble with the poor is their poverty". The foreign Jew does not think to take off his hat because it is his custom to cover his head in the synagogue, and other public institutions are new to him. He is no longer on constant watch for cleanliness other than ritual cleanliness, for the herding and the crowding he has been subjected to in the medieval and modern ghetto has well nigh destroyed such an ideal and a generation under slightly better conditions is not sufficient to wipe out the stunting effects of a thousand years. He seems to be careless with public property, or rather his young son

does, because his home is often so crowded and so poverty-stricken that he has no place to put his book where the baby cannot get it, or where a greasy dish may not be set upon it. And in the case where the attitude towards a public institution looks as if liberty and license were hopelessly confused such confusion is but part of the reaction when the pendulum swings to the other extreme after generation upon generation of repression.

Such a people, nevertheless, make a reading public many librarians long for in vain. You are not eternally beseeched for the latest novel — possibly there are few women among the adult readers. Your reference assistant is not pestered with requests for witty mottoes for luncheon favors, or the heraldic crest of the younger branch of Warringtons. Nor do you need to be ever on the watch for novel methods of advertising your library, or new means of attracting the public within its doors. But rather are you constantly beseeched for more books on sociology and for the best of the continental literature. Your reading room is full of young men preparing by themselves for civil service and college entrance examinations. Your reference desk is overtaxed with demands for material for debates on every conceivable public question, from "equal pay for women" to the comparative merits of the library and the gymnasium. And when there are more youngsters awaiting help in looking up every single allusion in their text-books than the assistants can serve, you are apt to find some child seeking for himself something about currents in the latest *Current Literature*. And what is better still, you have to be conservative and ever on guard lest your reading public increase three times as fast as can the library's resources.

Fully two-thirds of the work in all departments is with children. The little readers are the most insistent and are very willing to wait a whole afternoon for the return of a copy of the book they want. Their reading is an odd mixture of the serious and the childish. Their race tragedy often sobers them in appearance and taste very early, and as is well known, they are very precocious ...

The reading of both young and old shows a rather high percentage of non-fiction; but in this Brownsville is no exception. In similar sections of Manhattan the New York Public Library reports the same more serious trend of reading in comparison with its other districts. Books of biography, contrary to the usual habit, are drawn 50% oftener than books of travel. This is particularly

gratifying; for when the reading of biography seldom fails to inspire and stir much duller minds, how great must be its stimulating influence on a race so ambitious? Towards books whose use some libraries restrict, the attitude of the adults is very liberal. No explanation completely satisfies them and their indignation rises high when they learn that libraries occasionally see fit to withhold certain volumes of Tolstoi, of Zola, or of Shaw.

In a poor crowded district, at least, the access-to-shelves question is an open one and Brownsville's experience does not differ enough from the usual to indicate a final solution. The annual missing list runs well into the hundreds and the tally of mutilation cases looks proportionately bad. Among the adults as many volumes are lost through misunderstanding the meaning of the word "public" as through wilful theft. Little children will slip out without knowing that there is a charging process to be gone through. Young boys will sometimes steal a book out of pure bravado. But more often in both departments, books will be taken because the readers "must have them" for their studies, and as fines are owing on their cards they feel that there is no other way for them to obtain the volumes. It would seem, therefore, that in a foreign tenement district it may be unwise to start a new library with all its shelves wide open, or to suddenly convert a closed into an open-shelf library. A gradual opening would perhaps be better.

Hardly anything more than a survey of the field has been attempted in regard to personal work with the public. Five hundred Yiddish, Russian and Hebrew volumes have been too few to attract many of the fathers or grandfathers. Although a library representative has given talks at the monthly mothers' meetings and club leaders' meetings of the Hebrew Educational Society, has addressed a mass meeting of the Society's clubs and has talked to various clubs and associations in the neighborhood, few important results have been accomplished. Such work could not be done thoroughly enough or frequently enough to bear fruit. A weekly story hour, perhaps, has been the only exception. This was so popular and seemed to mean so much to the children, that the children's librarian was prevailed upon to continue it throughout the season, despite the fact that utterly unfit physical conditions cried aloud for its discontinuance*).

*) **Solis-Cohen. Léon M.** Library work in the Brooklyn Ghetto. Library journal, 33 : 485-488.

Mr. **Solis-Cohen** was formerly connected with the Brooklyn Pub. Libr. system.

CLASSIFICATION AND CATALOGUING

The systems of classification now in print and available for purchase will, without doubt, be the adopted systems of the future. Especially if such revisions as are necessary are made from time to time. Then again the methods and rules of cataloguing as now employed will be changed but little, if any, by future cataloguers.

The articles included, for the most part, indicate in a general way only, the methods of classifying and cataloguing. Both the outlines of a system of classification and the rules for cataloguing are too extensive to include in a publication of this kind.

A. CLASSIFICATION

Theory of classification.

The higher a profession stands, the more scientific are its foundations. It is not only our preparatory general scientific training, not only our daily dealings with science or with scientific material that give us the right to characterize our labors as scientific. The essential element of the scientific nature of our profession lies rather in the intrinsic necessity of conducting our official business in a scientific manner, that is, according to scientific principles and general, well defined premises.

Foremost among the librarian's activities stands the making of the catalogs. In these also centers the scientific part of his professional labors. All else is matter of technique, of practical experience and routine.

Three catalogs are indispensable to every well managed and well arranged library: The accession catalog, the alphabetical (author and title) catalog, and the subject catalog (realkatalog). I consider this proposition as an axiom of library science. The shelf-list may be dispensed with, in as much as one of the other three catalogs may serve its purpose. The distinction here made is correct because it is based upon a scientific difference between the catalogs. Other classifications, for example, the division into

general and special catalogs, depend upon a graduated distinction which can not be a first principle of division.

The leading principle for the accession catalog, as we have seen, is the chronological order of the incorporation of the books into the library. There is nothing simpler than the rule based upon this. The accession catalog contains in addition information about the provenance of books, about their condition, price etc. All of which is very important indeed, but involves no principle, no rule for the arrangement of the titles.

The leading principle for the alphabetical catalog is the order of the letters of the main component parts of the titles. Here difficulties arise. For the consistent carrying out of this principle demands first, a uniform alphabet for all sorts of script, and second, a definition of what are the main component parts of the titles, the words under which the titles shall be entered, and the relation of these to one another. In order to find one's way in the alphabetical catalog of a large reference library one must know the standard alphabet, which presupposes the transcription of foreign letters on the basis of a particular alphabet. In the second place one must be familiar with the rules governing the alphabetical arrangement of the titles. But if the very use of the catalog with any degree of certainty depends upon this knowledge, how much more must the librarian be sure of it, who is to continue and complete the catalog.

The leading principle of the subject catalog (realkatalog) is the subject of the books. Three demands are therefore made upon the librarian in this connection: first, he must have a sure judgment upon the subjects of the books; second, he must arrange the titles according to the subjects, that is, according to their relation and their place in the sciences; third, he must know the rules governing this relation with respect to subject; in other words he must be at home in the theory of the scientific classification of books, because the sciences in themselves do not convey a rule for the scientific classification of books, as we shall see.

The rule for the accession catalog elaborates itself. It is contained in the definition of the accession catalog. The rule demands the arrangement of the titles in the order of accession, or chronological incorporation of books into the library. The observance of the rule is as simple as the definition.

The rule for the alphabetical catalog also is given by the definition of that catalog and in so far is just as easily determined.

The rule says: The books are to be registered in purely alphabetical order; that is, according to the sequence of the letters of the words under which the titles are entered. But since the conception of alphabetical order is not exact it requires closer definition and here the difficulties begin. Opinions as to what should govern and is essential with regard to the alphabetic arrangement of titles differ widely in certain cases, as is well known. A decision upon principle arrived at deductively does not exist — any one practice or another may be followed. There are three ways in which a uniform treatment in the arranging of titles may be reached for one or more libraries: Custom founded on tradition; simple agreement; and official rules. While formerly custom prevailed exclusively, lately resort has often been had to official rules. And rightly so. For by means of voluntary agreement various practices are scarcely to be wedded into a single one, while progressive technique certainly demands uniformity to the greatest possible degree.

The rule for the subject catalog (realkatalog) again, stated in its most general terms deduced from the definition is: The books are to be entered in groups and successive divisions according to the subject. The question arises: Is it really the subject alone that determines the arrangement of the titles? The answer can only be: Not at all. For besides the intrinsic principle of arrangement, *i. e.*, the subject, an external objective factor — the use of the books — must be recognized. This principle of arrangement, consideration of the chief end of the library, governs of course for the alphabetic catalog as well, while the accession catalog is destined primarily to serve the administration. But in the alphabetic catalog the two principles of arrangement, the rule deduced from the definition, and facilitation of the use, coincide. Not so in the case of the subject catalog (realkatalog), as we shall soon see.

The principle of order of the subject catalog (realkatalog) comprised in its definition is the subject of the books. The titles therefore are grouped and arranged according to the subject. This grouping, this order, in turn is determined by the diversity of the sciences and their branches. There is complete agreement on this point; the thesis is an axiom of library science. Books are arranged in the order of the sciences and their branches.

All the sciences combined constitute science. Its subdivision into special sciences may take the form of empirical enumeration or may follow a systematic classification. The systematization of

science is a philosophical problem. Many solutions have been attempted but no system has received general recognition.

Each separate science which is to be fitted into the general system is, like the whole, an organism. To reduce to a system the organism of a special science is already easier of accomplishment. In this way originates the classification of the special sciences. The degree to which such classification may be carried is unlimited in so far as subdivision must needs stop only when it arrives at the single idea, the single fact.

The systematic arrangement of books, or rather of their titles, must closely follow the classification of the sciences, as long as no other principle of arrangement is adduced, and this with regard to the system as a whole, as well as with reference to the systems of the special sciences. This is demanded by the general rule of the subject catalog (realkatalog).

May we then designate as classification any arrangement of material which results from the application of one of these principles? In order to answer this question we will now try to fix the definition of classification. Upon this philosophers are in general agreed. It is therefore an easy matter for us. Classification is an elementary process of cognition and consists according to its general concept in the systematic arrangement of ideas (Begriffe) into classes thoroughly carried out. We think always in multiplicity of concepts. The multiplicity of concepts may be either an aggregate in form, that is, an agglomeration without inner connection, or it may be a system, that is, it may possess logical unity. As long as our multiplicity of concepts forms an aggregate our thinking is fragmentary; it rises and becomes systematic when the multiplicity of concepts forms a unity.

Classification is therefore not a mechanical but a logical process of division, and moreover a logical division which proceeds from a supreme concept limits the scope of the concept by addition of distinctive attributes, forms new and subordinate concepts with reference to opposite characteristics, and arrives finally at the lowest species.

It follows, therefore, that in the strictest sense of the term we can only speak of a classification in connection with the subject catalog (realkatalog) when the systematic principle is taken as a basis. In a broader sense, however, we call classification any arrangement of the subject matter or the content of a science which is carried out according to some plainly recognizable principle. For

these two methods, which are the only ones possible, stand nevertheless in a certain closer relation to one another. In rank the systematic order stands, however, above the subject alphabet form; the former is the primary one. The logical classification is the necessary premise of the alphabetical subject arrangement.

If we sum up the substance of our study the following fundamental rule holds good: Classification may follow the systematic principle or the subject alphabet plan, but it must strictly differentiate the divisions, originating in logical subdivision of the subject from the literary form divisions.

As there are but three methods of classification, so the possible varieties of the subject catalog (realkatalog) also are limited: There is the systematic subject catalog, the alphabetical subject catalog, and the subject catalog (realkatalog) combining the characteristics of these two.

Forms, apparently new, as for example the Dictionary catalog, and the Alphabetic-classed catalog, are only varieties of the three basic forms. There are no important objections to their adoption; for certain classes of libraries they are even much to be recommended.

In conclusion I will remark that everything I have said about the relation of classification to the subject catalog (realkatalog) holds also good for the relation between bibliography and classification. The close relation between the subject catalog (realkatalog) and bibliography makes both of them subject to the same principles of construction*).

Code for classifiers **).

The subject which I wish to bring to your attention is the question whether the classification of books involves, as an art, any principles which may be stated in general terms; in other words, any principles or rules applicable to the placing of books under any so-called scheme of classification. By a scheme of classification we mean a grouping of the various branches and topics of human knowledge in such a way as to exhibit their mutual relation and proper subordination. Such schemes of arrangement date from the time of the ancient Greeks, and they are still in

*) **Focke, Rudolf.** Classification; The general theory, Library journal, 29: C127-32, 1904.

**) Two lectures delivered before the Library School of the University of Illinois, March 18 and 19, 1912.

the making. They differ from one another in nearly every respect save in their aim to present the field of human knowledge as an orderly and complete whole. How, then, we may ask, can any code of rules be drawn up that will show the classifier how to classify in any one of these divergent systems indifferently? This question arises from an incomplete conception of what classification implies.

Classification is both an art and a science. As a science, classification groups the subjects which books treat; as an art, it assigns books to these groups. The question, "What is the best system of arranging books in a library?" is not the theme of our present inquiry. Our question is: What characteristics of a book determine its classification; and in case there are several such marks, how shall the classifier choose between them? This twofold aspect of our subject suggests a division of books for purposes of classification into "one-topic books" and "two-topic books". The latter term is intended to cover not only cases where two topics are treated in the same book, like electricity and magnetism, but cases where the topic treated has such close relations with several branches of knowledge that a decision between two or more places in which a book may well be classed depends upon rather nice considerations.

Every experienced classifier is guided by some principles, whether he has formulated them to himself explicitly and definitely, or merely applies them by a sort of instinct or intuition arising from long practice. Unless a classifier is guided by some such principles, he cannot preserve in his work that consistency and uniformity of procedure which are the best tests of his competency. Until one begins to record decisions made from time to time in classifying books, one hardly realizes how much of system there is in the art. The expert classifier at once discerns those features in a work which are significant for his purpose; the beginner will see so many features that might be significant that he is at a loss which to select; the reader of books without technical training in library methods would be likely, were he asked to class a book, to name merely that feature of the book which interested him. Only the other day a gentleman of fine literary perception asked me if he should find works on early printing in Massachusetts classed under history of that state. On the other hand, a librarian may be equally vague as to the plan of classification used by the large department store arranging its goods. The manager of a music store told me, not long ago, that the distinction he made between

sheet music and book music rested upon the amount of discount allowed the customer. Such a basis of classification was a perfectly practical one for his purpose; but who of us would dream of making a similar distinction?

But let us cease skimming the surface of our inquiry and dip into it. As we are to analyze the art of classifying a book, we shall do well to take up in order various modes of classifying books, beginning with the simplest, based upon obvious points of resemblance between books, and leading up to those complex problems that puzzle even the most competent classifier.

Every system of grouping books is based upon resemblances or likeness; and these resemblances may be of various kinds. Following Dr. Richardson, who has enumerated the ordinary modes in which books are or may be classified, but arranging his modes to suit our immediate purpose, we have the following features by which books may be grouped: (1) size, (2) date, (3) language, (4) binding, (5) literary form, (6) subject, (7) local treatment, (8) readers for whom written. We will consider what characteristics in each case determine the classification of the book by any of these modes and what are the problems peculiar to each. I shall not attempt to *answer* the questions that may arise, save in a tentative way. The purpose of these talks is to introduce the subject of a classifier's code to you, and possibly to the profession at large, and thereby to call forth comment. I may say that my earnest hope is that when once the subject has awakened attention, a committee of the American Library Association may be named to take steps toward compiling a code for classifiers based upon as wide an experience as that which underlies our "Catalog Rules".

1. *Size*. — The simplest mode of classifying books is by size. As a general arrangement for a public library, such an arrangement is never used nowadays, save in the case of books above the size of octavo. Folios and sometimes quartos are often, for economy of shelf room, placed on deeper shelves by themselves. Yet they are not strictly classed there. Their location with other books treating of the same subject is marked by a dummy, or else by some device in the call-number which indicates the unusual size of the book. The only question here for the classifier is where to draw the line. Shall the quartos be shelved with the octavos or with the folios? A decision upon this point, based upon the experience of those best qualified to judge, might properly be made a rule.

2. *Date*. — A second and usually a simple mode of arranging books is by date. This, again, is not a usual classification of books, except in the case of (a) incunabula, or books printed before 1500, and (b) scientific books, which are in some libraries subarranged under topics in order of date. The only problem for the classifier is, in the case of incunabula as in the case of size, where to draw the line. Shall the year 1500 be set as the latest date for incunabula, or shall books of somewhat later date, especially issues of special presses, such as the Aldine or Elzevir presses, be classed here rather than with the subject? A ruling upon these points would be of value to classifiers.

3. *Language*. — In popular libraries it is not unusual to arrange books in foreign languages in classes by themselves, calling them French books, German books, and the like. In reference libraries, especially those for the use of investigators, who are presumed to read foreign languages without difficulty, books are usually classed by subject, regardless of the language in which they are written. Works of the imagination are, of course, classified under the several literatures. But the classifier who applies a rule of classing always by subject is sure to meet cases that will make him pause. Shall a version of the Lord's Prayer or selections from the Scriptures, translated into an obscure language of the South Sea Islanders or into an Italian or French patois, be classed with Bible? This book may be one of the few specimens of that literature or dialect that are available to scholars for philological use, taken down, it may be, by some devoted missionary from the lips of his dusky convert. Even the classifier in a scholar's library would sometimes be glad of advice as to where to draw the line in classing books in foreign languages.

4. *Binding*. — Fine specimens of binding may properly be arranged together in a bibliographic museum or in an exhibition of library treasures. Should books so bound be *classed* by binding, or should they only be *shelved* together, their absence under the subject being supplied by a dummy or other device? There seems to be more reason for actually classing extra-fine bindings by themselves, for the reason that these copies will usually be reserved for exhibition purposes and will not be lent or used for reading.

5. *Literary Form*. — Classification by literary form is common enough in every system of classification. Encyclopedias are usually placed with other works of general reference at the beginning of the classification, while cyclopedias of special subjects

and periodicals covering a special field are often, especially in closely classified libraries, placed under the subject. In the case of periodicals, the difficulties are (1) to determine what is the scope of the periodical, and (2) to decide whether to class it strictly by the subject or to place it with other periodicals of somewhat wider scope. The title, prospectus, or editorial announcement in a periodical usually define the field which is to be covered by the publication; but articles outside of that field are sometimes admitted, and the scope of the periodical may even change for one reason or another. As periodicals do not "mix" well with other books, the classifier is tempted to group them together whenever he can, but by doing so he sometimes does violence to his principle of close classification. In my own experience, I am frequently puzzled to know what to do with periodicals, often ephemeral in their career, which profess to deal with specific subjects. The real difficulty lies in the uncertainty as to what a periodical is going to do. Lack of support and consequent change of scope, elasticity in the interpretation of its own program, changes of editor, and other vicissitudes are just so many influences that render it unwise to follow the title or the promises of the management too closely in classification. The safer course, in the long run, is to make provision for periodicals only under the larger divisions of a classification, such as history, travel, political science, art, and the like.

Fiction, as a form of literature classed together as such, offers few problems to the classifier, simply because the decision to keep it together is so arbitrarily made. In popular libraries it is not unusual to find even translations of foreign fiction classed with English fiction. A question does arise where to class historical fiction, but this is usually answered by the maker of the classification scheme adopted by the library or by the special needs or ends of the library. The only point that might properly be brought out in our code of practice would be the distinction between fiction and drama. Shall all literature printed in dialogue form be treated as drama? Some short stories, as you know, like Kipling's "Story of the Gadsbys", have the form of drama, but can scarcely be called such. The intent of the author, whether to write a play or a story, is really all that differentiates them; and in this case the intent of the author is apt to be carefully concealed. Classification strictly by the dialogue form is, of course, the easiest, for the classifier; but the reader may not only think differently, but may even ridicule that mode of treating what he deems a story pure and simple. But

suppose a novel is dramatized, as many are in these days. Shall we separate the play from the story? I see no other way myself, and let the author catalog show the connection.

Poetry is usually considered a literary form that draws everything into its net for purposes of classification. But if by poetry we mean verse or metrical style of composition of every kind, we can scarcely say that all poetry will be classed by form. Hymns, nursery rhymes, campaign and war songs, librettos of operas, and even local rhymes narrating historical events have each so distinctive a character that many classifiers will prefer to class them under the subject and apart from poetry of the imagination. But this question falls more properly under classification as a science and is for that reason likely to be answered by the maker of the classification in use by the library.

6. *Subject.* — We have now reached that form of classification which to many of you may seem the only one worthy of the name, the grouping of books according to the subject of the book. A classification based upon this feature of a book is indeed the most comprehensive and generally useful of all forms of arrangement. Such a scheme, properly carried out, seems on first acquaintance to possess that finality which the human mind is ever craving for its creations and never attaining. It undoubtedly best serves the purpose of a library, especially of that portion of it which supplies to its readers information, as distinguished from recreation. The aim of classification being, as Dr. Richardson says, to bring like books together, the aim of the classifier who groups books by subject is first to ascertain what is the subject of the book he is to class. The subject of a book is the answer to the query, "What is this book about?" Now, are there any principles of determining what a book is about? Let us see.

A book treats of the rose. Yet to say that this point alone is enough to determine where the book is to be classed is to overlook the fact that the subject of a book is not an isolated thing, considered in itself, but a thing standing in a certain relation to something else or possibly to several other things. Mr. Brown, in his *Subject Classification*, mentions thirteen relations or points of view from which a rose may be considered, and upon its relation will depend whether a book treating of the rose shall be classed in botany, in gardening, in painting, or in heraldry, and so on. By reading the title page and the preface, and by glancing down the table of contents, perhaps, too, by dipping into the text, we determine, in

each case, how the topic, "rose", is treated. What we are trying to get at by this procedure is just this: the *intent* of the author in writing the book—his idea or aim. By intent here, I do not mean "motive". An author may write for the purpose of getting money, for fame, or for revenge; that would be his motive. But by "intent" I mean what he is writing about. It is the author's idea of the meaning of his own book that we wish to ascertain first, for it is that which determines the main subject of the book. Pope says, in his *Essay on Criticism*, "In every work regard the writer's end", a sentiment which might well be taken as motto by the library classifier. An author occasionally, to be sure, calls his book, *e. g.*, a "contribution to history", when it is really a contribution to economics. It is not this accidental opinion of the author as to the *classification* of his book that I mean we should regard; but we should seek for indications, in the title, in the preface, and in the table of contents, of what the author really has in mind to write about, and that is the criterion by which to class the book under its subject.

Let us take some examples. Larned's "Study of greatness in men" contains mostly biographical matter; yet the aim of the author is to exhibit how this virtue or trait has been illustrated in the history of mankind, and as such the book treats of an ethical topic. Keller's "Homeric society" is, as the author tells us, "a sociological study of the Iliad and Odyssey". It is designed primarily, therefore, to elucidate Homer and not to exhibit early Greek society. Simpson's "Shakespearian punctuation" looks like a treatise on printing. The purpose of the author is, however, to interpret the meaning of the punctuation used in the earliest texts of Shakespeare. "Modern punctuation is," he says, "or, at any rate, attempts to be, logical; the earlier system was mainly rhythmical." Punctuation in Shakespeare originally indicated a certain aspect of versification, and under that topic this book, almost unique of its kind, should by all means be placed. Ferguson's "Hellenistic Athens, B. C. 323—86," is intended to supply, as the author tells us, a gap in historical literature. By this must be meant a gap in the histories of Athens, not of Greece at large, which latter is amply covered. Hence it is local history.

Books on "Shakespeare's England", "Bozland", and the like are meant primarily to illustrate Shakespeare, Dickens and other authors, and should be classed with literary history and criticism of those authors, although they contain just so much description of places. Yet even here we must distinguish between titles chosen to make a book sell well, *e. g.*, Wright's "Town of Cowper" (*i. e.*,

William Cowper, the poet), which is literary and historical associations of Onley, England, under which I have classed it.

On more example, and I am done. "The English Bible in the John Rylands Library, 1525-1640," is a sumptuous bibliography of Bibles in that collection. In the introduction and notes, however, the competent editor has given some very valuable historical data about the versions, which are worth perhaps as much or more than some books devoted to the history of Bible translations. Yet I would class that in bibliography, unless, of course, my system of classification should group the sections, "bibliography of the Bible" and "history of versions", together. Please do not confuse a question of *where* closely related *classes* should be grouped with the question of how to distinguish between *books* destined for one or the other of these related classes.

Such a close distinction as the last may lead some of you to exclaim, at least mentally: "Why this hair-splitting? Class a book where it will be most useful. The only question that a classifier need consider is, Where will this book be most useful." Let me hasten to assure you that I quite share this opinion: usefulness *is* the ultimate test of good classification. The only question is, How shall we render a book most useful? I claim that — speaking generally — we shall render it of most use and value to readers by placing it under that subject which the author sets out to treat, and does treat, after his fashion. In a special library, one devoted to but one or to a few branches of knowledge, other considerations than the one I mention undoubtedly do come in and should come in. A sociological library will place books on ethics under sociology because of their bearing upon social conditions; an historical library will group many books under history of a country that an economic library will classify under economics. But note that this procedure is not a violation of our canon of what constitutes the subject of a book, but it is a grouping of *that subject*, according to the special needs of the library. I contend, then — and on this point alone I am inclined to dogmatize — that the primary purpose of subject classification is best attained (1) by ascertaining the intent of the author, so far as possible; and (2) by considering this intent as defining the subject by which the book should be classed. One modification should be mentioned, however, that besides the subject, should be considered the class of readers for whom the book is intended, if any special class is so intended by the author. This point will be brought out presently.

Usefulness is a term that may be abused. No one would contend that a book should be permanently classed under a topic which happened to be uppermost in the public mind, merely because the book *contained* matter that would be, for the time being, useful to readers on that topic. A book on silver will be useful under politics during a political campaign in which the ratio of 16 to 1 is hotly debated; and the popularity of the public library may wax or wane in proportion as it places together on outside shelves many or few books bearing upon this war-cry from every point of view. But after the smoke of battle clears away this book on silver may be called for under tariff or mining or numismatics, according as popular interest trends. If the intent of the author is to furnish political information, the book belongs under politics, of course; but if the intent of the author is to furnish information about mining or silver money, there the book will be of permanent usefulness. Now, anything may form the subject of a book if an author chooses to write about it. The subject may be a material object, an animal, a human being, a country; it may also be an act, a thought, a relation, an agency, an influence. Obviously, the latter subjects are far more evasive for purposes of classification than the former.

Just at this point is where our canon of subject classification shows its efficiency: the intent of the author is what we must ascertain, and then, no matter how involved the subject may be, we have a clew that will guide us through many a maze. One particularly perplexing field for the classifier is the doctorate dissertation. Topics for research in this field have been gleaned so carefully by past candidates for the coveted doctor's degree that present-day candidates must fall back, forsooth, upon new relations, aspects, influences of the old factors in history and literature. When we come to consider the "two-topic book" we shall see what fruitful examples this field of literature affords us.

7. *Local Treatment.* — The dilemma of whether to class books, first, by subject, and, secondly, by locality, or *vice versa*, which has so long puzzled and divided catalogers, does not present quite the same problem to the classifier. Most classifications are groups of subjects — history, travel, sociology, politics, science, literature — with local subdivisions. Hence the distinction made in the subject catalog between the historical and political sciences, where subjects are grouped under countries and cities, and the natural sciences where places are grouped under subjects, has no place in classification. What does present difficulty is, as in so many other cases, the

question of limit—how closely shall the local classification be carried out? Shall we class a book on the accounting system of the United States under Public Finance, United States? Or shall we make local subdivisions under topics of taxation—accounting, sinking fund, income tax, and the like, and class local works there? Is a history of toleration in England to go under Toleration or under Church history, England? There is no doubt that a thoroughgoing close classification by subjects will always consider first the subject of a book, and only secondly its local purview. Toleration is a perfectly definite subject. If we group it with other books on church history we bury it; although, of course, it is not beyond the reach of anyone who will look through all the books on church history until he comes to those confined to the history of toleration. On the other hand, we need not subdivide by countries at all, but may let all books on toleration remain in an alphabet of authors. If our collection becomes large, local subdivision is no more out of place than it is under a broader subject. Usually, the incongruity of such cases appears only while the collection of books gathered at a particular point is small.

Another question connected with local treatment is whether a book shall be considered general in its scope unless it expressly states in the title that it is not. Many books upon sociological topics are based upon local data; yet the bearing of the book is intended to be general. Many works on social conditions, labor, finance, and the like, are of this kind. The conditions illustrated may all be in England or all be in the United States. To search a book for the purpose of ascertaining whether the data are only local or not is both time-consuming and profitless. For what the reader wants are either facts, considered in a general way—whatever be their origin—or else local conditions as such. The title page may usually be trusted to indicate which is the intent of the author in this regard.

A third question connected with local treatment in a somewhat different way is that of classifying localities, once independent, which have in later years been incorporated in larger wholes. For example, the kingdom of Aragon and Leon, which afterwards, with Castile, became the kingdom of Spain. Is a history of Aragon before the fifteenth century local history, or is it a period in the history of Spain? Poland is another case. Our system of classification may decide that question for us. If it does not, the general principle of giving preference to the specific over the general heading would lead us to put the history of Aragon, Leon and Poland under each

country, respectively, and reserve the earlier period of the inclusive countries only for collective works.

A fourth question is: Shall local events always be treated in a local way? For example, a battle is a local event, but it is also a link in the chain of events that make up a war, and a war is usually a national, not a local, affair. Hence we usually class battles, sieges, regimental histories, fortifications, harbor works, and other factors of national import, under wars or military art, or under national public works of defense and commerce, and not under the places where they occur or are located. On the other hand, the history of the part taken by a state in the American Civil War is state history strictly, unless, indeed, it is a mere roster of the state's regiments. In one case the state is the unit; in regimental histories, the army corps is the unit. Another example is "Sussex in the great Civil War" a contribution, no doubt, to the history of the rebellion in England, but circumscribed by the part taken by Sussex in these events. I should class this, therefore, under Sussex.

A fifth question is: Shall descriptions of individual buildings be classed with architecture or with local description of the towns or cities where they are situated? Mr. Brown, in the introduction to his "Subject Classification", makes an earnest plea to class them under travel, on the ground, as he says, that interest in local building is, in nine cases out of ten, historical, archæological and local, and only in the tenth case is it architectural. He might have added that a description of a city is largely a description of its various buildings; and, in fact, herein lies the reason for including *general* descriptions of buildings along with general descriptions of places. A history of Westminster Abbey is *not* an architectural work, and for that reason it does not necessarily go with other works which are devoted to the architectural description of buildings. A work on Longfellow's historic mansion in Cambridge, associated, as it is, with Washington and the poet Longfellow, is obviously historical, and not architectural. There can be no question of inconsistency, therefore, in treating general descriptions of buildings like general descriptions of cities, which are so largely mere collections of buildings, and classing such descriptions in travel, reserving only strictly architectural treatises for the class Architecture.

8. *Persons for whom written.* — Lastly, we have a classification of books according to the class of reader for whom the book is intended. This section will include books of very diverse character;

it really is not one section at all, but as many sections as there are classes of readers. First, we have books written for children, which may, indeed, be classed by subject, but are marked with some symbol to show that they are juveniles. Secondly, we have books for the blind, printed in special type, and for obvious reasons of no use to any readers but the blind and those interested in them. Thirdly, we have books written on special subjects in a special way, adapting them for the use of certain people or for professional students: *e. g.*, "Mathematics for electricians", "Journalism for women". Here the intent of the author is clearly defined by the use to which he expects his work to be put, and as such the subject must be grouped by that intent.

Mathematics for electricians goes, without question, under electric arts (or electricity), and not under mathematics; its form, extent and application are all determined by the uses which are to be made of the book, and the mathematician has no claim upon it, nor has he any special interest in such a book.

So a writer upon journalism for women has in mind the woman writer, her needs, her opportunities or her limitations; thence the effect of the book is not journalism, but woman pursuing journalism as a vocation, and as such it belongs under Woman. "Manual of wireless telegraphy for naval statisticians" is a title combining three topics, namely, (1) telegraphy, (2) naval art, and (3) statistics. But as telegraphy and statistics are treated only for their bearings upon naval art, the book should be classed under naval art, or a subdivision of it.

We have as yet said nothing of those difficult problems that arise when a book seems to fit equally well in either of two places in the classification, and yet must be placed, for physical reasons, in only one.

In the course of our inquiry into the scope and problems of a code for classifiers, we have found; (1) The art of assigning a books to its proper place in a scheme of classification is distinguished from the science of drawing up a scheme of human knowledge; (2) in applying this art to classifying books according to such a scheme, there are principles which determine our judgment in each case and enable the classifier to maintain a certain consistency in his work; (3) these principles, as applied to a classification by date, by language, or by local treatment, relate to the limits of the class and are based largely upon the results of practical experience; in other words, are based upon usefulness.

In classification by subject, which in comprehensiveness and importance far outranks any other form of classification, the principle which should determine the assignment of a book to its proper class is not some feature of the book that is supposed to make it especially useful somewhere, but that characteristic which expresses what it is *about*; and this characteristic we found to be that imparted to the book by the author: *what* he means to write about, *that* is the main subject of the book. To this should be added the corollary that the class of reader for whom the book is intended must be considered in determining the classification.

Thus far we have dealt with books having one subject. We will now consider how we shall treat books (1) that cover two subjects, or (2) have as their subject some topic of a complex nature or have manifold relations with other topics. The difficulty in the first part of our inquiry was to find the significant feature of a book for purposes of classification; the difficulty in the second part of our inquiry will be to choose between two or more features of a book which appear equally significant for purposes of classification. Books of this character may be called either "two-topic books" or "two-face books", according as they cover two topics, or, Janus-like, face to ways, so far as their affinity for more than one class is concerned.

1. *Compound Titles.* — A book may treat of two coördinate topics, like electricity and magnetism, which are included in one book merely for convenience. They are not represented as uniting to form something else or as acting upon each other in any way. Yet the book must stand under one or the other topic; it cannot stand under both for obvious reasons. Now, we may class such a book either (1) under the first-named topic, or (2) under the topic which occupies the more pages, or (3) under some third topic which covers them both, like physics. The first rule is essentially arbitrary, the second is mechanical, the third is scientific and in accord with the nature of classification. Personally, I prefer the third rule, if it is applicable to the case in hand. If it is not applicable, the topic receiving the fuller treatment should prevail. You will observe that I say nothing about convenience in *finding* the book by title. Such a principle, which is fully justified in the case of entering joint authors, has no place in classification. The author catalog guides the reader to the book; the subject catalog guides him to its contents.

The subject of a book may be the relation of something to something else; or it may deal with the action of one thing upon

another. This relation may be stated or it may be only implied. A title may read: "Influence of German literature upon English literature", "Influence of the climate of California upon its literature", "Anglomaniia and the English influence upon Italy in the eighteenth century". Here we are told of the relation. But if the title reads, "Evolution and the fall of man", or "Laurence Sterne in Germany", we do not know without inspection of the book which factor acted upon the other, or even that there was any influence exerted at all. Yet in many cases of titles formed of two substantives or phrases joined by "and", the two topics are not coördinate, like electricity and magnetism treated in one book; but the purpose of the book is to describe how one thing has affected another.

Let us take one of the examples given above, "Evolution and the fall of man". By this I understand the influence or the effect which the doctrine of evolution has produced upon people's idea of the fall of man. The doctrine of evolution has undergone no change, but our ideas of the fall have, so we are to infer. Now, what is the information here conveyed? It is a description of certain changes, and those changes have taken place, not in the doctrine of evolution, but in the doctrine of the fall as ordinarily interpreted. The pith of the book is, then, the fall of man, and in this case this topic should determine the classification of the book. Other examples of a similar kind are, "Geography and history", books upon this topic usually showing how geography has affected the course of history, or how geography should be considered in the study of history; "Music and morals", which may, indeed, be merely fanciful, or it may treat of the refining influence of music upon morals.

Reverting now to the cases where the relationship of the two parts of a compound title is stated, let us analyze the situation. A book treats, we will say, of the influence of German literature upon English literature. Shall we class it under the first or under the second literature? Classed under German literature, it tells something of the effect of that literature abroad; classed under English literature, the book describes the changes wrought in that literature or the effect produced upon English literature by German literature. Which is the more important for us to know? Evidently the latter; for German literature is not changed by acting upon its neighbor, and hence the history of its external action is accidental, as it were; whereas English literature shows the traces of foreign

influence upon it, perhaps in its form or its choice of topics. We have here, then, a bit of literary history essential to the student of English literature.

Take a more conclusive case: effect of old Norse literature upon English literature. Surely the value of such a book to a student of old Norse is negligible, but to the student of English it is very great. But if we have to deal with a book showing the effect, *e. g.*, of Laurence Sterne upon German literature, we meet another element, namely, person *versus* thing. This aspect of the matter will better be discussed presently under another heading. If the analysis we have reached is correct, the rule for compound titles will be this: (a) When two unrelated topics are treated in the same book, class under the one which receives the fuller treatment, unless there be some inclusive subject which includes both topics; (b) when a book treats of the influence of one thing upon another, class under the thing acted upon or affected by the other.

Shall we class a book on "feminine influence on the poets" under poetry by the preceding rule, or shall we put it under woman, perhaps as a special topic, in case the system of classification used by us brings together under woman all her various activities and the subjects associated with her? Evidently the poets are the ones affected. How could they help being so! But, bantering aside, our rule will not be violated in either case, because the place of this *topic* in a classification is indifferent to us, so far as our code is concerned.

A peculiar case is a thesis that recently appeared on "Themes from St. John's Gospel in early Roman catacomb painting". Here we have, as possible topics of classification, St. John's Gospel, painting, and catacombs, not to mention a possible bearing upon controversial theology. Barring out the last-named topic, the subject really described is painting in the catacombs.

A case that may possibly be considered under the present rule is that of wars of invasion. Cutter says, "Class a war of invasion under the country invaded". This seems a good precept, which is entirely borne out by the principle under discussion. The country invaded is the one affected most by the war; if the enemy conquer her, she loses her independence or pays an indemnity — both internal changes of profound significance to her history. If, on the other hand, she repels the invader, she is still the one affected, for, presumably, the invading power was fairly well prepared before he declared war and will suffer little internal derangement by his defeat. Even the

invasion of Russia by Napoleon, which proved so disastrous to himself, had less effect on France as a country than it did upon Russia. The history of Russia is, therefore, the appropriate place for this invasion.

2. *Biography*. — Shall we class individual biography together, or shall we distribute it throughout the classification under those topics or events with which the person was most closely identified? This is a problem that has proven so insistent for solution that the makers of systems have made some provision for it. None of the four best known systems — Dewey, Cutter, Library of Congress, or Brown — scatter *all* individual biography by subject. Cutter's compromise is to place lives of artists with art on account of the illustrations of an artist's work often included; biblical characters with Bible; kings and queens regnant under history on account of the difficulty of drawing a line between the life of a ruler and a history of his reign; popes under the papacy; printers under printing. Evidently the principle underlying all these cases is that the actor is *identified* with the subject. In the case of clergymen, this identification is not always so entire, because a clergyman is often eminent in literature or otherwise. In the case of military men, their career is seldom limited by a single war, while, on the other hand, it is not long enough to cover the military history of their country. If a distinction is to be made between individual lives that go with the subject and those that do not, I believe Cutter's is a wise line of demarcation. The case of kings is peculiarly embarrassing. For if we class all under biography, we leave empty many sections of history covering individual reigns; while if we put all lives of kings in history, we leave out some of the most prominent characters in the world's biography. A similar situation is true of most memoirs of public characters.

Another kind of biography are diaries kept during a war, personal narratives of events and even travels. These are, as a rule, classed by the subject, because the personality of the writer is usually of less interest than the events narrated. This classification is also borne out by our canon of the intent of the author, which usually is to tell what happened or to describe what he saw, and not to tell what he did. Or if his personal actions do enter in as an important factor, they are largely illustrative of the subject. Yet when the narrator is a person of great prominence, the choice between biography and the subject is a delicate one. Should the personal diary, kept during a war by a general, be classed in

biography, while the personal diary kept by a private be classed in history? Is the journey of General Grant around the world a biography or a book of travel? The decision rests, it seems to me, upon *what* the book is about. If the narrator is a man of such prominence that *he* is the real subject of the book, then that fact in itself determines the classification of the book. The classifier must, however, be left in each case to decide upon the narrator's prominence.

Another class of biographies is that treating of a person who is made the center of a group, such as "Lincoln and his cabinet", "Grant and his generals". Here the point is to determine whether the persons forming the group are introduced merely for the purpose of bringing out certain phases in the character of the principal, or are each the subject of a separate sketch. In the later case the book is, of course, collective biography; in the former case, I should class with the life of the central personage. Again, a book may treat of the action of a certain character in a certain event or chain of events, *e. g.*, "Cardinal Louis Aleman and the end of the great schism". The point to determine is what is the intent of the author; is he writing a life of Cardinal Aleman, or is he relating the history of the great schism, so far as it was influenced by Cardinal Aleman? We are brought here face to face with a principle that deserves separate treatment, the principle, namely, of the precedence to be given in classification to persons over events or things.

3. *Person vs. Thing.* — Man is a rational being, formed by the substantial union of body and soul. He thus unites within his own nature matter and spirit. He is superior to matter and acts upon it by his will. While he is occasionally the sport of natural forces, he is essentially superior to them, and to some extent controls them. He at least combines them and makes them the instruments of his will to produce certain effects. Man is thus the unifying agency in human events and to some extent in the course of nature. For that reason he has an interest to us that always outweighs in importance that felt for the matter with which he deals and the effects which he brings about. For that reason, when in classification a person figures in connection with a material object or an event, the person is to be given the precedence; *his* action and *his* share in events are factors that outweigh in importance and in interest their environment. The bearing of this fact upon the questions that we are discussing is just this: that whereas under section 1, we

formulated a rule that the book treating of the action of one thing upon another should be classed under the thing affected, now we must modify that rule, if I am right, and add an exception, namely: wherever a person is concerned, class under the person in preference to the thing.

Take the title last cited, "Cardinal Aleman and the end of the great schism". I should in any case put this book under Aleman. Or a work on "Laurence Sterne in Germany", meaning the effect of Sterne upon German literature, I should class with Sterne's life or with his works, and not in German literary history. Other titles of biographic works dealing with men and topics are: "Alexander Hamilton and the making of the Constitution", "Mme Currie and the discovery of radium", "Influence of David Hume upon the course of Scottish philosophy". I should put all of these under the biography of the persons named *).

But a work that treats not of a man *and* a thing, but of a man's philosophy or of his theories, or what not, is quite different. A synthesis of Spencer's philosophy has primarily nothing to do with Spencer as a man, and hence goes with its proper subject in philosophy. Otherwise we should run into absurdities as, *e. g.*, classing the whole controversy over evolution under the biography of Darwin, because, in one stage of the theory, at least, it was *his* idea.

Another phase of this question of individuals is where two persons are concerned, either in controversy or about some common cause. For example, the controversy between Bossuet and Fénelon regarding quietism; or a civil trial between two parties at suit; or a personal quarrel. If the cause of the controversy is a matter that has place in the classification, as the topic quietism, the book will be placed under that subject, the ground being that the topic concerns both persons equally, and hence assumes an importance in itself that outweighs any interest that either of the two persons can by himself have. The story of the quarrel between Alexander Hamilton and Aaron Burr is, on the other hand, entirely personal, and, in a way, is analogous to a criminal trial, where the person accused is generally taken as the subject of the trial. In the case of Hamilton and Burr, the person challenged, in this case

*) Even if all the biographies of the persons named were placed under the respective subjects the statement in the text would still hold good, for the reason that books of a biographic character would hardly be mixed in one alphabet with technical or systematic treatises on the subject.

Hamilton, is the subject of the quarrel. You will notice here, as in a former case, I disregard altogether the order of names on the title page. If the title should read, "Quarrel between Aaron Burr and Alexander Hamilton", I should still place it under Hamilton.

Lastly, we have works dealing with the influence of one man upon another, *e. g.* "Indebtedness of Shakespeare to Boccaccio", "Dante and Virgil". Here our rule of classing under the thing affected is applicable to the person affected, because there is no question of the preference to be given to a person over a thing. Shakespeare's writings are what was affected, not Boccaccio's: so of Dante.

4. *Diplomatic Correspondence.* — This kind of publication seems to be equally weighted at each end, so to speak. The documents to be found in the official correspondence of an ambassador with his government usually concern intimately the affairs of the country to which he, as its representative, is accredited; on the other hand, his purpose in communicating these facts is to guide his own government in foreign relations. How shall we decide under which country to classify the book? Let us apply our canon of subject classification: what is the intent of the author? In this case, the real author of the book is the official or the government issuing the dispatches or compiling the documents for public information. As official diplomatic documents, they would hardly be issued at all unless they concerned primarily the policy or the actions of the government issuing them. To proclaim officially the policy of *another* country through such a medium would be in the highest degree improper. Hence we may take the intent of the publication to be to exhibit the foreign policy or to justify the action of the country issuing it, and under that country it should be classed. Such light as it may throw upon the policy of the other country concerned is merely incidental. We may be confronted, it is true, with two accounts of the same events. The French Foreign Office, for example, may issue a series of diplomatic documents dealing with the causes of the Franco-Prussian war; and the German Foreign Office may issue a similar series. In this case we must either be content to separate them by countries or else class them as common material dealing with the Franco-Prussian war, which, as a war of invasion, will be classed under France.

Different entirely from official diplomatic correspondence are the gossipy diaries, letters and narratives of ambassadors and others,

who write unofficially of events occurring under their observation. Such books will be classed strictly by the subject matter.

5. *Genealogy*. — A work, entitled "Defence of the Scottish regalia, 1651-52", which came to my hands not long ago, dealt with the part taken by the family of Ogilvie, of Barras, in preserving the crown plate of Scotland during those troublous times of Scotland's history. Is this political history or family history? The canon which I should apply here would be that governing the classification of works dealing with persons. The Ogilvies were the persons concerned; the crown plate was the thing; Scotland was the scene of action. First in importance, not alone by our canon, but first, undoubtedly, in intent of the author, are the persons here written about, and as a contribution to family history, I should place this work in genealogy of the Ogilvies. Local histories are often full of genealogical data. But if the purpose of the author is plainly to write a history of the town, this may be taken as determining the classification of the book, and we must leave to the cataloger to bring out the genealogy.

Shall we put a history of the Brontës in genealogy or in literary history on account of the eminence of the most famous member of that family? I should say: Class in genealogy works whose primary intent and interest are the family, as such, no matter what may be the literary interest connected with certain members of the family. If, however, the book makes no pretense of treating the whole family or of tracing it through several generations, but is intended to give the lives of several literary members of the family, literature is plainly its proper location.

Genealogy *vs.* Religion might be used as a somewhat bizarre caption for a type of book dealing with the family history of persons all belonging to the same religious body. A prominent example that will occur to some of you are registers of birth, marriage and death issued by the various Huguenot societies. The history of Huguenots has a place in most classification under religious history; but the publications mentioned are to all intents and purposes precisely similar to registers of other families. In subject matter, therefore, they are genealogical. Yet the data here gathered together have a significance for both compiler and user that cannot be overlooked by the classifier, and the best solution would seem to be: (1) class collective genealogy of Huguenots as a special topic under genealogy, (2) class local genealogy of Huguenots with other local works of the same kind. Wherever any considerable number of persons of

the same religion have settled in a place, especially in Colonial times, their presence there may be brought to the notice of the reader through the subject catalog. Their association with the place as settlers is likely to be of more importance to the genealogist than their religious affiliation; hence we should treat their family registers locally.

6. *Series*. — The best disposition of series is an open question, and yet it seems worth while to seek some principles whereby consistency may be attained without relying upon arbitrary methods of procedure. Series are of several kinds. They may be: (1) works covering a certain period of literature, like the early English Text Society, or various German mediæval collections; (2) works upon one subject, *e. g.*, reprints of economic tracts, or the "Theological translation fund"; (3) rare or curious books, like the "Bibliotheca curiosa"; (4) documents and the like dealing with the history of a country or with one period of it, like "Chronicles and memorials of Great Britain and Ireland"; (5) works written by writers of a special school or literary tendency, *e. g.*, "Plays for an Irish theatre"; (6) works of merely the same form, like "American statesmen", or "Story of the nations"; or (7) publishers' series, made up of original works or of reprints, remotely or in no way germane to each other and merely issued in uniform binding. The point to be determined, if a distinction is to be made between series, is this: Have some series a significance as series which others have not? If they have, it is evident that this significance may well be made the ground upon which we may classify the series as a whole. Moreover, if separating the works of a series by subject destroys a practical usefulness which the series as a whole is intended to fulfil, then by separating the series we are sacrificing the prime intent of the maker of the series and depriving our classification of what is practically a comprehensive work composed of many parts.

Reverting to the various kinds of series just mentioned. I should say: (1) Class by series works covering a certain period of literature which has a certain distinction from other periods, like the Anglo-Saxon or early English period of English literature. So we keep together the Early English Text Society, but scatter "British poets". (2) Class by series works covering a specific field, but not those covering a generic field. Economic tracts is fairly specific, theology is too broad to be significant. (3) Rare and curious books are not significant as such; so scatter them, unless, indeed, we wish to bind several volumes or pamphlets in one binding. (4) History

of a country as a whole is pretty broad, and so we may split up a series like the Rolls Series into individual works. But it should be noted that many historical series include works that would, if classed by subject, be placed far away from history, *e. g.*, in literature or economics. By scattering the series we place this non-historical material by subject, but we deprive the investigator of works brought together especially as illustrative material and published only as such. (5) Class works of a special school together if collected to illustrate that phase of literature. (6) Scatter publishers' series. A further practical consideration is binding, which may properly be considered in keeping together a collection of monographs. All monographs covered by collective volume title pages must, of course, be kept together.

We have now touched upon a number of points of difficulty that arise in connection with the act of placing a book under its proper class. The number of cases might be indefinitely increased, *e. g.*, shall we class catalogs of books on special subjects located in a particular library by library or by subject? Shall we class books on the organization of Parliament under legislation or constitutional history or general history. Shall we put Fourth-of-July orations under United States or local history? Shall we consider theological point of view in classing books on special doctrines of Christianity? We have seen that there are principles that indicate those characteristics of a book which have significance for the classifier and determine the place of a book in a scheme of classification; and these principles hold good whatever arrangement of *classes* may be made in a system. A code for classifiers, therefore, in which these principles should be presented would treat of how to determine the class where a *book* belongs. Such a code would be distinguished thereby from a system of classification which determines where that *class* shall stand with reference to other classes in a scheme of the arts and sciences. This code would bring together and systematize the local practice of many classifiers in many libraries, a practice that is often based upon experience that is of far more weight than any merely theoretical considerations can be.

The instances which I have given should suffice, it seems to me, to show (1) that there are enough of such principles to make a book, (2) that these principles are not necessarily relative to a particular system of classification, (3) that a code of rules drawn up as I have outlined would be of great value to classifiers, and would result in securing greater consistency in classification and

hence more efficiency in rendering the resources of our libraries available to those who use them*).

Decimal Classification.

With aid of professors in each department and co-operation of librarians interested, in 1872-76 I worked out the 10 classes and their 100 divisions and 1000 sections, following the inverted Baconian order, but they were not published until 1876. Many promptly ridiculed the idea of 1000 divisions in a library as wholly impracticable in use, but when they found with delight that the relative index, referring not to accidental page number or to a certain inch or more on some wooden shelf, but to permanent class, division, and section to which a book belonged, made closer classification easier than the old way, they began asking for more minute divisions.

So step by step 10 editions printed in 43 years have grown from 1000 headings to over 30,000, and not a week passes that some one, in some country, does not request closer division of the subject of special interest. From co-operation of the Amherst college faculty the work spread until many hundreds have shared in steady enlargement and improvement. Correspondents in all parts of the world send to us at Lake Placid Club new heads for tables, new words for index, and other suggestions. The great inconvenience to all users of having supplement after supplement, led us to incur the cost of keeping the whole work in type so as to insert at its proper place any new material.

Each year some one is troubled because we fail to make what he calls "improvements", but we check up with great care all these suggestions and if a large majority of those whose criticism we have found reliable, agree that the proposed change would do more harm than good, we have politely to lay it on the table, often to the proposer's annoyance. Some suggestions would clearly have been better had they been thought of earlier, but when many thousand libraries are numbered on a uniform system, only gravest reasons justify changing numbers and introducing confusion that destroys

*) **Merrill, William S.** A code for classifiers; its scope and its problems. *Library Journal*, 37 : 245-51 ; 304-10, 1912.

Mr. **Merrill** is head of the Public Service Department, Newberry Library, Chicago.

the very great advantage of numbers having the same meaning in every civilized country. In fact, at a World Conference at London, discussing an international language, an expert declared that D. C. numbers were the only language known among all civilized people with a perfectly definite meaning. The advantage of this harmony, in addition to other D. C. merits, led in scores of cases to entire reclassification of libraries that had adopted schemes of their own. Here and there some D. C. user is sure he could make a better scheme than has resulted from co-operative work of hundreds of people in various countries for 40 years. After a few years' trial, many have thrown away their "improved" systems, which they found after trial to be inferior to standard D. C. The main consideration however is no longer whether D. C. is the best system devisable. One could surely to-day make a better classification than yesterday. No classification can be perfect and much valuable co-operative work is based on D. C., so the paramount question now is between:

Great delay (to make a good classification takes many years) for the sake of possible betterment; and

Acceptance of a tried and practical system (necessarily with some imperfections) carrying immense advantages of uniformity with thousands of libraries and individual users and of world-wide and growing co-operation.

Changes clearly worth their cost are incorporated in tables and index, and recorded owners of earlier editions are notified so as to keep uniformity of usage. But no number is altered merely to fit a new theory, for theories are constantly changing and a shifting classification is impracticable for libraries. If a scheme brings related subjects together, provides for adding new topics, and enables books on the same phase of the same subject always to be classed together and found quickly when wanted, it is of comparatively little moment whether exact sequence on shelves accords with the latest theory.

For 43 years we have carefully protected each revision by copyright, not as a source of income but simply to protect against garbled reprints that would destroy much of usefulness by introducing confusion in meanings of numbers that are now definitely intelligible throughout the world *).

*) **Dewey, Melvil.** Decimal classification beginnings, *Library journal*, 45: 451-54, 1920.

Dr. **Dewey** was formerly librarian of the New York State Library and is author of the *Decimal Classification*.

Library of Congress Classification.

During the twenty-odd years that I have worked with the L. C. system, its chief advantages have appeared to me to be the following:

1. A simple, but elastic notation. There is no fear of a general breakdown, no matter how large the number of additions, or how many new subjects turn up in the future, the literature of which will have to be accomodated without extensive changes or re-arrangements of what has previously been added. An examination of the classification will show that five entire letters have been left unused, that second letters have been left open in a great many places, and that groups of numbers amounting to hundreds and sometimes thousands have been left for future development throughout the schedules.

2. Each main class has its own separate schedule, which can be procured at a low price. Such schedules may be placed in the stacks, departments, offices or wherever needed.

3. The classification numbers appear on the L. C. catalog cards in increasing number, representing an economy in classification which only one who has had occasion to make practical tests on a large scale can fully appreciate.

4. In addition to the Library of Congress, several government departments, university and other libraries now use the classification, contributing printed cards bearing L. C. numbers. Some, as the University of Chicago and University of California libraries print cards independently; others contribute copies to the Library of Congress, the cards being printed and distributed by that institution.

5. The U. S. Government, with its national library, is back of the enterprise, and there is small danger that it will be permitted to go by the board, like so many other bibliographic ventures of equally ambitious scope.

6. Smaller college libraries, particularly, will receive their classification numbers thru the printed cards for a very large and a constantly increasing proportion of their books.

7. The country and local subdivisions in the Library of Congress Classification have been varied to fit the particular subject, and are not uniform throughout. Some may consider this a disadvantage, Personally, I look upon this as an advantage. Mnemonic features are of little consequence to the student and

professor. Besides, every notation tends to become more or less mnemonic as the users become familiar with it.

8. The list of subject headings serves as a temporary index to the classification. This will be supplemented by the full index now in process of compilation. This new index will probably be by long odds the most comprehensive so far issued in connection with any bibliographic undertaking.

9. The classification has been evolved by actual application to a larger number of books than has any other system now in print.

10. Subjects have been subdivided to an extent not generally found in any other system.

Of the disadvantages of the L. C. I may note:

1. In a college or university library the class bibliography may be broken up rather than kept together as has been the case in the Library of Congress scheme. At the University of Chicago a compromise has been tried out, viz., personal bibliographies: bibliography of societies and institutions have been placed with other literature about the person or institution. It is a question whether it might not have been wiser to go even farther and disperse all subject bibliography. At the same time, it should be noted that so far there have been no complaints from professors or students on this score but, on the contrary, some commendation of the grouping of bibliography in one place.

2. Schedules are as yet incomplete. Typewritten copies must be depended on in some cases, In others, *e. g.*, Latin authors, inscriptions, no schedules are available at all.

3. The classification was planned specially for the Library of Congress, more space being allowed for American history and, in general, for the historical, political, economic and sociological groups, than would have been the case, had the scheme been formulated for general application.

However, the advantages have seemed to outweigh the disadvantages to such an extent that personally, I have no hesitation in recommending the adoption of the L. C. Classification for college libraries, large and small, as against any other system in the field.

In conclusion, may I state that in 1910 I had occasion, on behalf of the University of Chicago, to make a rather exhaustive study of the various classification systems in print, and in that connection to seek the advice of a number of university and reference librarians, regarding the system considered most suitable for a university library. These investigations were embodied in a lengthy

report. A reference to this document shows that the great majority of the librarians consulted favored the Library of Congress classification, some of them stating that were they in a position to begin over again, this system would undoubtedly be their choice. Five or six years later, the librarian of a university library on the Pacific Coast made a similar investigation, sending out questions to a large number of university and college librarians. He informed me recently that the answers showed an overwhelming majority for the Library of Congress Classification *).

Expansive Classification.

In theory classification and notation are two entirely different things, but in practice they are married, so that it is not altogether an Irish bull to say that the better half of the Expansive Classification is the notation that accompanies it. That notation is simple, short, elastic, correspondent, mnemonic.

First, it is simple. Letters are used to mark the main classes and all their non-local subdivisions, and for nothing else. Figures are used for two things. The numbers from one to ten mark those divisions which it is convenient to group together at the beginning of many classes, namely: Theory and Study, Bibliography, Biography, and History; of the class; the form divisions Dictionaries and Encyclopedias, Handbooks and Tables, Periodicals, Societies, and Collections (meaning the works of several authors together). The figures from one to ten, I say, are used for this. The figures from eleven to ninety-nine are used to mean countries (40, Spain; 56, Russia; 61, India; 71, Egypt; 83, United States, and so on), so that it is possible to express the local relations of any subject in a perfectly unmistakable way, the letters never being used to signify countries, and the figures never being used to signify any other subjects but countries.

Second, the letter part is much shorter in its marks than any figure notation can be. It starts with 26 classes instead of 10; it subdivides each of these classes by twenty-six instead of by ten; when it uses three characters (the least number used in the Decimal Classification) it makes seventeen times as many classes as the figures make; with four characters it has forty-five times as many,

*) **Hanson, J. C. M.** Library of Congress classification for college libraries. *Library journal*, 46: 452-54, 1921.

and with five, 118 times as many. Now this means almost perfect freedom, plenty of subdivisions where one wants a great many, and few divisions with very short marks where one needs only a few. And with this liberal notation one can do a great deal to make different parts of the classification correspond in marking with one another, which one cannot do if one has a very limited number of characters to work with. One can also express the relation of classes to one another and to their subordinate parts much better.

Third, it is mnemonic, that is alliterative, a matter of minor importance but still as far as it goes a help — first in learning the class marks, and then in keeping the less used marks in mind. I find myself helped very much by it, but I know of others to whom it gives no help whatever. That is their misfortune, but of course no objection to the notation, for in this it is no worse than the figure notation, which can give no help to anybody.

The order of classes and, what is much more important, of subdivisions under classes, though very likely not the best possible and certainly not the only good order, tries to be scientific, logical, natural, convenient. It follows the practice now general both in classification and cataloguing of putting the inclusive, the general, first and the special, the subdivisions, afterwards. Among the subdivisions it puts the local first then the subject divisions. It follows the evolutionary idea throughout, — in natural history putting the parts of each subject in the order which that theory assigns to their appearance in creation. Its science proceeds from the molecular to the molar, from number and space through matter and force to matter and life. Astronomy, proceeding from the general to the particular, first surveys the stellar system; then concentrates upon the sun and its satellites, ending with the earth considered astronomically. The proper successor to this is the earth in itself, that is, considered physiographically and geologically and the plants and animals upon its surface. Here we make, therefore, an easy transition from physics, or the matter of sciences, to natural history, or the life sciences. Then botany rises from cryptogams to phanerogams, zoology from protozoa to primates, ending with anthropology. Part of that is anatomy and physiology which leads directly to the practice of medicine and its various branches. So we modulate from science into the arts*).

*) **Cutter, Charles A.** Suitability of the Expansive Classification to college and reference libraries. *Library journal*, 24: 43-46, 1899.

Mr. **Cutter** was the author of the Expansive Classification,

Library of Congress and Decimal Classification.

I have been asked to discuss the L. C. Classification vs, the D. C. in college libraries of less than 100,000 volumes; however, I have not agreed to do more than to try to say enough to start a discussion. I know of no better way to do this than to bring in a minority report for L. C.; for our Dewey, of eleven generations, is not without defenders. As has been said of it, "With all its faults, we love it still". So, with the understanding that I am not telling you, but arguing with you and that I expect a discussion, I proceed.

As to limiting the consideration to the better classification for a college of less than 100,000 volumes, I do not think it practical. I am sure that this would exclude most of us, as all our libraries are large ones in the making. Who here would set anything less than 100,000 volumes as a final goal for his library? No, we are not selecting a classification to carry us to a certain point and then be discarded, but the best one for a growing collection and adaptable to the ever widening field of knowledge. This being the case, I am taking the liberty of discussing these classifications on their merits for a college library, regardless of size. In passing, I merely mention the fact that one can ramble in a large field and not be so conspicuous.

By way of answering the question as to whether the L. C. is satisfactory for a small library, I quote from a number of librarians who are using it. Miss Alice C. Dean, acting librarian of Rice Institute, with a library of less than 50,000 volumes, writes: "There is no doubt in my mind that the Library of Congress system is the one best suited to all college or special libraries whatever the size". She further says: "We have classified more than forty thousand volumes during the past twelve years. We have used the L. C. system from the start and are convinced it is good". Mr. Gilbert H. Doane, assistant librarian of the University of Michigan, in reply to my direct question, writes: "I do not think the L. C. too expansive for a college library of any size". He further states: "In one library — and not a college library at that — of some 9,000 volumes, I used it and found it satisfactory".

The strongest talking points in favor of the D. C. are that it is less complicated and is used by more libraries and therefore, library assistants and users are better acquainted with it. All this is granted, but is it not true that the average user of the library knows very little about the classification, and to a great extent, finds

books on the shelves by means of labels or location? Is it not also true that the classifier should be a person of at least average ability and that such a person should be able after a little experience to use the L. C. system intelligently? Do we make progress by saying that what always has been always must be and refuse to take up anything new because it is not so well known as something else?

The L. C. has been worked out by specialists in the different subjects and is up to date. Moreover, it must of necessity be kept up to date and new subjects provided for, in order to take care of the accessions of the Library of Congress. The D. C. is revised and expanded by class, and as we all know, many classes are inadequate and considerably out of date. In addition, each main class of L. C. is published separately and may be procured promptly, at little cost, when a new edition comes out. The cost of the L. C. complete is only about six dollars. After waiting a long time for the revision of a section of D. C. it can be procured only by buying the classification complete at a cost of eight dollars.

The D. C. makes the subject fit the classification, while L. C. makes the classification fit the subject. Hence, the D. C. notation is restricted, while the L. C. is elastic, in that not only each division of a subject may be provided for and stand in its proper relation to other divisions, but also new subjects may be taken care of in the proper places. Unused letters and figures have been left throughout L. C. for future development, while D. C. must tuck away a new subject under a decimal, regardless of importance, unless by chance too little was known about the subject at the time of the last revision to take up all the divisions. The L. C. classification is practical, while the D. C., is theoretical. The problem of the makers of the L. C. system was not to anticipate what the needs would be but to place the books in the Library of Congress in the classification.

Regardless of the fact that L. C. is worked out in detail, the notation is simple and of reasonable length. Mr. Hanson calls attention to the fact that by the D. C. with six symbols it is possible to number 100,000 divisions as against 7,019,299 in the Library of Congress system with the same number.

The objection is sometimes made that L. C. has no complete relative index. This is true, but the L. C. "Subject headings" serves the same purpose and is much more complete than the D. C. index. For example, in the Relative index there appears a single entry

under "Electric railroad", while in the L. C. subject headings, sixteen sub-headings with the class number for each are given, besides two references to additional material in another schedule and two "See also" references.

Granting that most college libraries buy the L. C. Cards, one of the outstanding advantages in using the L. C. system is that the classification number is given on these cards. Altho this number is not always adopted, the time is saved of examining and sometimes almost reading the book to decide what it is about. In addition thereto, the time is saved of trying to find a place in the classification where it will fit, as has been my experience with Dewey, especially if it is on a new subject.

In conclusion, I would say that the L. C. is the better classification for a college library: (1) It has been worked out in full by specialists in the different subjects. (2) It is more up to date. (3) The revisions of the schedules may be procured more promptly and at less cost. (4) It is more practical as each schedule has been worked out to fit the subject and revised by comparison with the books on the shelves in the Library of Congress. (5) It better provides for future development. (6) The arrangement is better because done by specialists and the unused letters and figures have permitted new subjects to be placed in their proper position in the scheme. (7) The notation is simple and on an average shorter than the D. C. (8) The notation scheme is better in that seventy times as many divisions may be provided for with the same length number. (9) Time is saved in classifying by having the classification number given on the L. C. cards. If some of these conclusions are drawn and not proved and you do not believe them, try the classification for yourself*).

Systems of classification compared.

In this connection, the first thing that commands our attention is the question of notation. In the first place, it seems well to say that notation and classification are two entirely different things

*) **Gulledge, J. R.** The L. C. vs. D. C. for a college library. Library journal, 49 : 4026-4027.

Mr. **Gulledge** is librarian of Mississippi Agricultural College.

and are governed by different principles. The more thoroughly this distinction be kept in mind the better it is for both.

The sole purpose of the call number, as I conceive it, is to fulfill the functions enumerated: 1, to offer a ready means of shelving the book in its proper place; 2, to connect it with the card catalogue; 3, to aid the reader in applying for it at the loan desk and, 4, to serve in filing the indicator recording the books charged out. Now one of these processes requires that information be given by the number about the classification, in fact any sort of number would do, which differentiates the classes, and which could be arranged in a successive order. Nevertheless each of these four processes requires time and attention on the part of some individual, a fact that would be worthy of attention from the view-point of possible errors if done only once, but when we consider that this fourfold process is repeated infinite times it would seem that the prime necessity of a call number is that it be both clear and brief.

For this reason, I believe that the effort on the part of some makers of classifications to place the whole history of their particular systems in the notation is a confusion of two entirely distinct things and has resulted in much waste of time and effort. To gain clearness and brevity we should sacrifice some very attractive additions to the notation, which impress me as being merely art for art's sake.

If I were asked, what is the best system of notation, I should frankly admit that I don't know. All of them seem reasonably bad, i. e., none unites the qualities of brevity, clearness and expansibility.

I think the Decimal system of notation has much to commend it in legibility and expansiveness, yet no library of any size can get along with less than the three decimal expansion of the Cutter number resulting in a number of at least seven digits long, and generally more. Furthermore I do not consider a pure number notation wholly satisfactory, as there are no definite landmarks distinguishing the classes. The reply, of course will be made that it is easy to remember that 100 is Religion, 200 Philosophy, 400 Philology, etc.

The Cutter notation is also indefinitely expansible, but its combinations of unpronounceable letters is psychologically bad. It is difficult for us to use letters for any other purpose than the

formations of words, hence the coefficient of error in transcribing combinations like the following is tremendously increased: YVAJ.

The Library of Congress notation has qualities that are excellent and others that are not. In the first place, the class number is generally short, that is, when the minuteness of the classification be considered, thus S95 for the feeding of cattle is an easier number to handle than the one presented by the Brussels Expansion of the Dewey. It is very rare that L. C. number comprehends more than six symbols, thus JX 4321 stands for the Right of Asylum in Mexico.

I consider the Decimal Classification a work of genius, an instrument of surpassing adaptability and one of the prime causes of the great progress made in library science during the last generation. Much as has been criticised, it has been and still is the classification par excellence for public libraries as distinguished from the great research and reference libraries, for whose purposes, I think, as yet it has not been adjusted. For these the Cutter system offers superior advantages over the Dewey, yet its incompleteness and its lack of indexes has long militated against its general adoption.

If, however, I were asked what system I should select if I were called upon to classify a library, I should, say without hesitancy, that of the Library of Congress. I should reply thus mainly because I know more about it and could put up a neater job, for I wish it understood that I hold no brief for the Library of Congress classification. No one knows better the faults and deficiencies of that system than one who has worked upon it. He is too well aware of the things it contains that might have been better done had conditions permitted, to gloss them over to the disadvantage of some other system. How often have I heard Mr. Martel say, "If I only had ten years more to go over it all and comb out the tangles". Mr. Martel's ideal however, as all who know him will agree, is perfection, and the end of those ten years would doubtless have found him just as discouraged as at the beginning.

Nevertheless when all is said and done the conception and the execution of the L. C. classification stands as one of the most significant bibliographic enterprises ever undertaken. It is true that the British Museum had printed its monumental catalog, and the Bibliotheque Nationale attempted a classified catalog, yet the former

was merely an author list, and the latter perished after the issuance of a few volumes. The opportunity offered Mr. Martel was unprecedented, and he achieved it against odds that would have discouraged any one save that patient and accurate scholar and loyal, modest man. For seven years, I worked desk to desk with Charles Martel, and never during that time did I hear him say a word that was not directed towards the welfare of the work he had in hand or that was not concerned with the welfare of someone else*).

*) **Wiley, Edwin.** Some sidelights on classification. Library journal, 44: 288-93 359: 64. (An extract only from **Mr. Wiley's** article.)

B. CATALOGUING

a) TRAINING FOR ADVANCED CATALOGUING.

I hesitate to speak on training of cataloguers before an audience composed so largely of librarians representing public libraries. My own experience, while covering a long period, has been divided somewhat equally between two university and two reference libraries, with almost no opportunity to study the question from the standpoint of the public library. Nevertheless, when cataloguing is taken in a broad sense, and considered from the point of view of its development in America during the last twenty-four years, it will probably be found that qualifications required to make capable and efficient workers are to a large extent the same in the public as in the reference or university library.

True, in a university library the books to be handled are likely to run somewhat different from those acquired by the average public library. Departments such as Chemistry, Physics, Astronomy and Mathematics in the scientific group, and the Oriental studies, including Semitic, Sanskrit, Egyptology and the Slavic languages and literatures in all their ramifications, in the humanistic group, are likely to bring in collections of books rather difficult to dispose of. Books in foreign languages, not only in German and French, but in many of the minor or less known languages, often represent over sixty per cent of the annual accessions. Moreover, books on Literature, Biography and Description form only a small percentage of the total. All this naturally adds to the problems requiring solution.

I know that there are large university and reference libraries which have claimed within the last few years that they were able to catalogue their books at an average cost of fifteen to twenty cents per title. I shall take this opportunity to emphasize the opinion that cataloguing books of the character which such institutions usually acquire at the figures given, means either that the help is underpaid, or it is deficient in that training without which cataloguing destined to stand the test of time, cannot be undertaken. Sooner or later such libraries are confronted by the demand for reorganization, and reorganization, as some of us know to our sorrow, is about

three times as expensive as organization. I repeat, therefore, that a university library cannot get on for any length of time with cheap or inadequate help in its Cataloguing Department. I do not know how far this applies to the public library, or the average reference library, but imagine that the danger from cheap or shoddy work is much the same in all institutions.

I realize that classification is more important in our American libraries than in the public or reference library, or in the average university library abroad. Hundreds of graduate students and professors have access to the stacks and do much of their work among the books. They are inclined to be more critical of the classification than of the catalogues, and for this reason, the university libraries are forced to pay particular attention to classification. One must conclude, therefore, that of the three kinds of libraries, a university library would ordinarily require a higher grade of help for its cataloguing than either of the other two. It is the irony of fate, however, that university libraries are, as a rule, not in a position to pay as high salaries as either the public or the reference library. At any rate, it is my belief that few of the best graduates from library schools enter the university library field. The public library particularly, can overbid the university nine times out of ten. As a result the university libraries must recruit their staffs from student assistants and apprentices to a large extent, a rather uncertain method, but one which occasionally yields good results. Here, as elsewhere, much depends on the personality of the individual.

Assuming then, that the public and reference libraries secure most of their recruits from the library schools, and that the university libraries depend more on students and apprentices, and having had an opportunity to observe both classes of assistants, I shall endeavor to give my impressions of the preparatory training and the qualifications which to my mind tend to make the most efficient and capable cataloguer or classifier, having always in mind primarily the assistants in a university or reference library.

Of the thirty-two years which I have spent in four different libraries, it happens that the first twenty were devoted largely to cataloguing and classification. Many different assistants were observed during that time, no two with exactly the same preparation or qualifications.

The exact number of assistants whose work and personality were studied cannot be given, but the total must have been not less.

than 250. An attempt will be made to select from this number the ten or twelve who stand out as the most efficient and satisfactory, quality of work being considered fully as much as quantity of output, their training being submitted to a brief survey. It must be borne in mind that the group to be studied is a select, not an average one. To this there may be some objection on the ground that most libraries must content themselves with cataloguers of average ability, that only a few institutions, if any, are fortunate enough to maintain for any appreciable time a force which even approximates the ideal. The contention is readily granted, but the difficulty and uncertainty of sketching the experience and training of the average assistant among so many, without access to original records, decided me in favor of the former method, viz. to select the best, those whose work and personality had impressed themselves most firmly on my memory. The standards resulting from this study should not be beyond the reach of many institutions, if the intellectual growth and progress of our schools and colleges keep pace with their material development.

The group selected may be divided into two classes, in the first will be placed six men, in the second, six women. In each group the educational preparation from youth to manhood or womanhood, and their subsequent professional experience follow the same or similar lines.

In the first class the early training in secondary schools, colleges or gymnasias, show a strong leaning towards a study of languages, literature, history, philosophy, and in two cases, science. Following immediately upon the college or gymnasium courses, come two to five years of graduate work in languages, literature, history, philosophy and science, and in two cases also considerable opportunity for bibliographical study. This educational preparation is then followed by library school, apprenticeship, or volunteer service in a university or reference library, covering a period of from one to three years, after which they become regular assistants in the cataloguing or classification departments, where each year of experience adds noticeably to their efficiency. If I were to enumerate the inherent qualities observed in individual members of this group, I should emphasize the following: good memory, patience and talent for detail work, research habits formed early in life, unselfish, devoted to the work and unflagging interest, honesty, unusual accuracy, good judgment, wide and thorough knowledge of books and subjects.

In the case of the second class, the ladies, the early education and training is similar to that of class one. The period of graduate study is lacking for the most part, practically all entering library service, or library school immediately upon graduation from college. After one to two years in the library school, or a corresponding period of apprenticeship, they serve for varying periods in university or reference libraries. As compared to class one, several of them lack the breadth of knowledge, and also special knowledge, which are outstanding features in the intellectual equipment of some of the men. On the other hand, they frequently show a more intimate knowledge of form, detail, and of technique, being perhaps on this account more dependent on rule and routine, more timid and uncertain when confronted with problems out of the ordinary run and not provided for by the rules. Curiously enough, outside of the actual work of the library, in the ordinary practical affairs of life, the women show more self-assurance than the men.

Assuming for the moment that we are in agreement on the essential qualifications which go to make up the cataloguer of the highest type, and that the highest type is represented approximately by the training and qualities just outlined, the question at issue, is, how persons of this type can be secured in sufficient numbers to meet the demands? The answer which will perhaps occur to most of us, aside from financial inducements, is encouragement of foreign language study in the schools, study of the world's history and literature, political and social sciences, philosophy and art, with a sufficient number specializing in the sciences, technology, medicine, law and theology, to supply the demands of libraries particularly strong in these fields. You will note that I have placed foreign language study first. May I in this connection, say a word on some of the present aspects of this subject.

We have noticed recently a decided drift away from classics. I consider this tendency one of the most serious dangers threatening the future of our libraries. Unless the schools continue to provide solid foundation in classical studies, we cannot hope in the long run to secure cataloguers competent to deal with a large part of the books which go to make up the departments, not only of the humanities, but also of the sciences. Another element of more recent growth and which tends to complicate the situation is the increasing number of applicants just out of school, who have not knowledge of German. In spite of the prejudice of some against German and the Germans, largely an heritage of war propaganda, there are

certain stubborn facts from which there is no escape, viz. that since the invention of printing, the book trades have developed and flourished in Germany as in no other country. Taking the comparative figures of books printed as they have appeared from year to year in the Publishers' Weekly and elsewhere, we find that there are from three to four times as many books published in Germany as in France, and about as many as in the United States and the United Kingdom combined. And when one tries to recall answers to that question which comes to us so often, "What are the best books or articles on a given subject"?, it is quite surprising in how many instances the inquiry narrows down to works in the German language, of which no adequate translation is found. Therefore, I for one, feel no hesitancy in expressing the opinion that it is for us librarians to work for the restoration of German in our schools, to a position, at any rate, on par with French or Spanish. I believe that this is a thesis that can be defended, whether on grounds of self-interest, sound economics, common sense, patriotism, or morality.

Unless action is taken to check the drift away from the classics and German, to which reference has been made, I fear the time is not so distant when our larger university and reference libraries may have to consider importation of cataloguers from abroad, something which may have its difficulties in view of the apparent tendency of the Department of Labor to class librarians as laborers, for which it is not entirely to blame. You doubtless recall the original meaning and scope of the term library.

One other tendency in our schools, which has had a bad effect on the material to which we have to look for our future cataloguers, is the desperate competition between institutions of learning to see which shall offer the greatest number of courses and cover the most ground in a given period of time. This leads to specialization before the student has acquired proper groundwork for a general education. Too often a student, who from his own choice, or on advice of some dean, has selected a given course, finds himself on graduation from the university, with dabs of specialized knowledge, it is true, but also with huge lacunae or gaps which should not be found in the educational make-up of any person with real pretence to sound general education. Very often the student is compelled to take up professional work immediately on graduation. If a library career is selected, the university graduate soon discovers that the advantages of specialized knowledge are

more than offset by shortcomings in other directions. We need at least some courses which shall aim to turn out men and women with general, well-rounded educations, not only specialists in some narrow field of knowledge.

Lectures and seminars combined with rigid training in languages, literature, history, geography, philosophy, and art, the selection of a few of the best books on each subject, the contents of which the student is required actually to master, would seem more likely to yield the results desired than the customary way of placing 20,000 to 25,000 volumes on reserve each quarter or term and then expect students to read from three to four books a week and thus cover an amount of collateral reading quite beyond the capacity of any normal being.

I have ventured to criticize certain features of our school systems which tend to affect unfavorably the cataloguing material available. I hesitate to offer similar criticism of our library schools. The majority of positions are offered by public libraries and the schools must be guided in their planning of courses by the demands of these libraries. At the same time the needs of other types of libraries must not be lost sight of, and before leaving the subject of educational training, I venture to throw out this suggestion or query: if the colleges and universities cannot provide the courses required for librarians of learned and scientific institutions, should not the American Library Association or the library schools consider ways and means whereby such training might be supplied either through existing schools or through a graduate school for librarians?

Having referred to the effect of schools and training on the number and quality of cataloguers available, may I in closing speak briefly of conditions within the libraries which may have affected unfavorably the personnel of our cataloguing departments.

Unlike most of their colleagues in foreign countries, some of our library administrators of the last decade or two have not always shown that appreciation of detail work, such as cataloguing, which comes from close familiarity and practical experience. Abroad, men like Dziatzko, Hartwig, Ebert, Pannizzi, Jones, Fortescue, Clement, De Lisle, Hiagi, Schwanke, Milkau and a host of others, have always placed the higher and more difficult forms of cataloguing on a par with book selection, administration and reference, as one of the basic departments, on which the success or failure of the administration largely depended. Not so some of our administrators on this side of the water and their attitude has

not been without its influence on the younger entrants into the profession. Fewer and fewer are willing to serve as privates or non-commissioned officers. It pays better to strike at once for a place on the general staff. Better pay and more appreciation for the cataloguer should help to remedy this situation.

There is another aspect of the question, on which I touched in a letter last year, written in answer to an inquiry from Miss Mann. It was the tendency to make of cataloguers mere copyists. It may possibly add to the output to have one or two persons at the top whose duty it shall be to sketch out headings and subjects, outline the entry, and then have cataloguers of a lower grade fill in the remainder. The weakness of this arrangement is that it gives little incentive to the assistant and small opportunity for that mental growth and development which should gradually make of our apprentices and graduates of library schools, assistants capable of dealing with the multitude of difficult problems which daily confront the Cataloguing Department in all libraries which have a proper realization of the work of this important department.

If I were to summarize the prime requisites for securing improvement in the cataloguing situation, I should give them as follows:

- 1) More attention to classical studies and German, and in general to foreign languages.

- 2) Broad courses pointing to general, rather than to special education.

- 3) A proper appreciation on the part of our administrators, whether head librarians or trustees, of the fundamental importance of good cataloguing for the success of their administration.

- 4) Arranging the work in the Cataloguing Department so that as many as possible may have a chance to improve their minds through daily contact with reference books and the contents of books which are passing through their hands.

- 5) Let as many library assistants as possible have a chance at cataloguing. It is important that the cataloguer should have a try at reference work and similar duties, but it is even more important that the reference assistants should have a taste of real cataloguing.

In these remarks, I may have seemed too critical, too exacting, too impatient of conditions as they are. The state of mind which usually prompts such utterances is sometimes attributed to approaching old age. Again, the trying period of war and reconstruction in which we are living and trying to function may

be partly responsible. I recall a chapter heading in a book written a few years after the close of the Thirty Years War, by a professor at the University of Giessen. It reads: *Augentur Secula, Minuunt Virtutes*. From time immemorial, every passing generation has had a tendency to consider itself a little better than the one which is crowding it out. However, this may be, I have a feeling that a certain standard of education must be expected from a university or college graduate who aspires to become a librarian. One cannot help being shocked when an assistant, sometimes with, sometimes without, much library training or actual experience, after a careful diagnosis of a French treatise on Julianus Cesar, decides that it relates to Julius Caesar, not to the Emperor Julianus Apostata; that Porto Rico is a part of the Phillipine Islands; that Austrasia assigned as a subject heading must necessarily be an error for Australasia makes the necessary correction, later discovered by a university professor with results which I need not detail here; that Savonarola was probably an Indian chief, or that Boccaccio is the title of a book, the authorship of which has been attributed to a certain prominent senator from Pennsylvania; that "Ebendas", the abbreviation which appears so often in "Kaiser", "Heinsius" and other German trade lists is the greatest publishing center of Germany, etc., etc.

There is, of course, no royal road to learning and I fear that only hard, conscientious work along somewhat broad lines and extending from the elementary school through the college or university with long years of rigid professional training, will protect us against the type of assistant likely to be a constant menace to the reputation of the library. It is sincerely to be hoped that the present drift towards materialism, industrialism, imperialism, and militarism, will not prove so great or so lasting as to deprive our libraries of the kind of help needed to maintain the standards set by that generation of librarians whose work-day fell mainly in the last quarter of the nineteenth and the first years of the twentieth century. Few of these men and women are now with us, but we owe it to their devoted and conscientious effort that American library methods and ideals are now highly regarded throughout the world, and the maintenance of the high ideals of service set by them, is a duty which has descended to the generation now holding their places and which they will surrender in turn, to their successors.

When King Olaf Haraldson, later known as St. Olaf, fought the battle in which he lost his life, it is related of his standard bearer that when he felt that he had received his death wound, he plunged

the staff of his banner into the ground with such strength that it remained standing firmly, the banner waving proudly, while he fell dead beneath it. This incident inspired one of the finest poems in modern Norwegian literature*), a poem whose leading theme emphasizes the idea of man as merely a temporary factor in progress. He falls, but the banner representing the structure which he wrought, the ideals for which he struggled, remains, a truth which applies not only to governments and rulers, but to all human endeavor, no matter how humble, even to that of the librarii **).

Instruction in cataloguing.

The study of cataloguing requires much time and attention in the course of study of the library school. The schools are, indeed, criticised by some librarians for devoting too much time to it. The reasons for this apparent over-attention are many. A large number of the graduates become cataloguers, and many more enter into positions where a knowledge of cataloguing is essential. The principles of cataloguing underlie all the clerical records of a library. A knowledge of the rules is helpful in accession work, in shelf-listing, in preparing lists of various kinds, in all bibliographic work. From the pedagogic side, instruction in cataloguing is most necessary in developing the powers of attention, accuracy, observation, neatness, order. Students beginning cataloguing must be constantly reminded of the need of being accurate, and in order to be accurate they must be taught to observe, to be attentive to detail. The most common failing which must be corrected is that of inaccuracy; bad spelling, copying dates and names incorrectly, and misquoting authorities, are the first faults to be overcome even with students who come otherwise well prepared. It is surprising how many students will misspell names like Macaulay, Thackeray, putting an *e* instead of the final *a*, and will not notice the difference between English and American spelling, in titles, of words like civilisation and honour. There is no discipline in the whole library school curriculum of more value than that obtained in the instruction in cataloguing. The endless

*) Per Sivle's Tord Foleson.

) **Hanson, D. C. M. Training for advanced cataloguing and other higher forms of bibliographic endeavor. Presented as an informal discussion before the Cataloguing Section (A. L. A.) Detroit, 1923.

Mr. **Hanson** is associate director of University of Chicago Libraries.

detail is irksome to many, but it is often on that account one of the things most needed.

Cataloguing in the broad sense employed in the course of study of a library school should include a knowledge (a) of the various codes of cataloguing rules for author and title catalogue (b), of the authorities for full names, the cataloguer's reference books (c), of the rules for dictionary subject cataloguing, (d) of the mechanical outfit for a card catalogue, and (e) of the use of the Library of Congress cards. In regard to (a), the time assigned must seem large, but if cataloguing is taught well it should embrace a thorough understanding of at least one code of rules — Cutter's "Rules" being the most important. The A. L. A. rules must be studied along with Cutter's. As the former code is still in an unfinished state it cannot be used without Cutter's. At present, of the two, Cutter's "Rules" is the more important. The study of 165 pages of Cutter, with practical cataloguing to illustrate the rules, requires no small amount of time. To students who know nothing about cataloguing terms and rules, progress at first must be slow, for each book presents its own difficulties in collation, imprint, title, etc. The rules must be arranged so as to make the work progress from the simplest problems to the most complex. Author and title cataloguing should precede subject cataloguing.

Careful revision of the cards handed in by students is essential, and "red ink" for corrections must be freely used. Graduates often say that they appreciate most gratefully the red ink marks on their cards, which as students they were inclined to resent and consider superfluous. For when they go out as trained workers they are often required to be most accurate in regard to details.

Students must be taught to keep their revised catalogue cards in order so that they may be consulted readily. The individuality of the student must be taken into account as to the order in which they are kept, but some system is essential. It is not so necessary that they preserve these in dictionary form in order to have a dictionary catalogue when they complete the course, as that they should arrange them so that they can be referred to for any of the several cataloguing rules. Then if they wish to see how the name of a married woman or an English nobleman is written it can be found with little loss of time. The innumerable details are difficult to master in a short time. It is only by using sample cards and their corrected cards that students can make progress in cataloguing. Using proper indention, punctuation, capitals, after some time becomes mechanical.

The instruction in cataloguing should be based on the cataloguing for a library neither very large and scholarly nor very small and popular. There must be a compromise. In a library school whose graduates are called to positions in libraries ranging in size from the Library of Congress to a library of 1000 volumes and less, it would be foolish to teach cataloguing for a small library or to use simplified cataloguing rules exclusively. It would be better to err on the side of making the instruction for Cutter's "Full" rather than for his "Small"; perhaps still better it should be based on the wants of his "Medium". The graduate will find it easier to omit than to add. Of course there are always students who do not learn common sense until they have had some hard experience, who will insist on using unnecessary bibliographic detail in cataloguing for "Small" because they have been taught to do so at the library school for "Medium", but every instructor in cataloguing should teach so far as possible adaptability to circumstances. Cataloguing for a small library should be taught, but it should not receive the same attention as the fuller cataloguing because it is comparatively easy to omit unessentials after one has learned their relative importance for various libraries.

There is no question that dictionary cataloguing must be the chief basis for instruction, and in order to make this instruction effective there must be for working purposes a full dictionary catalogue illustrating the most recent ideas in card catalogues, including the use of the Library of Congress cards.

Much attention must be given to subject entry. Cutter's "Rules" is the best authority for instruction in this subject, but the teacher will find it necessary to explain the rules more clearly, and to change some of them so as to bring them into accord with present practice. The "A. L. A. list of subject headings" must also be used, the directions in the preface and appendix being carefully explained. Books must be given to the students for the assignment of subject headings, added entries, and references, which are afterwards discussed in class, reasons being given for or against the headings selected by the students.

Practical work in cataloguing must be given to the students, and if it is possible to do this, students' work should go into the card catalogue of the library. Students take more interest in their cataloguing if they know that their cards are to be actually used. Of course no card should be inserted in the catalogue without careful revision, the cards being returned to the student for even the smallest error. Students must be taught the importance of consistency

in a catalogue, consistency in the use of punctuation, capitals and other small details, as well as in the larger points of entry and heading. Accuracy in small things is a step towards accuracy in larger things. Students must be made to appreciate the gravity of inaccuracy.

While a comparative study of cataloguing cannot well be given in a one year's course, there must still be some reference to the several codes that have been compiled. Special attention must be given to the various differences of opinion and usage, the arguments for variations being made clear. This is a somewhat difficult matter for those who are beginning, as confusion is likely to result. Nevertheless the student must not leave the school without every effort being made to show that authorities may disagree on some points, and that he must be able to adapt himself to the usage of the library by which he is employed. Adaptability is not easily taught. There are graduates who will leave a school with the firm conviction that whatever has been the custom or usage of the school is infallible. In justice it should be said that the schools do what they can to correct this tendency.

A second year's course should include a thorough study of cataloguing from the comparative and historic points of view, with advanced problems and attention to special phases such as cataloguing manuscripts, rare books, and other difficult and special problems.

At the Drexel Institute Library School two days during the week throughout the year are devoted to the subject of cataloguing. In the first term, until February, the time is taken up with author and title cataloguing, while during the second half of the year it is assigned to subject entry and practical cataloguing, with explanations of the card catalogue outfit and the Library of Congress cards. On cataloguing days, a lecture is given by the instructor, which includes a criticism of the work of the preceding day and a discussion of the points brought out in the problem. Attention is called to the various errors made by the students, the importance of accuracy being emphasized. The problem of the day is then explained, Cutter and the A. L. A. rules being used as textbooks. Special sample cards are given to the students, which are made to conform to the main entry cards as closely as possible with the form for the printed cards of the Library of Congress.

During the second term, when subject entry is given special consideration, the students are assigned one set of books each week for subject headings, these being discussed fully in class. Students

catalogue under supervision all books added to the library during the second term, besides analyzing the contents of many books. They also assign subject headings to all new books. Mistakes are corrected and explained by the staff. This practical work is of great importance in their training.

Handwriting. — As it is difficult if not entirely out of the question to compel applicants to write the so-called library hand before they enter a school, it is necessary that some time shall be devoted by students in acquiring a slight proficiency in the art. In a brief course of one school year it is not possible to give much time to what seems to be something that can be gained by practice without a large amount of instruction. And after all it is chiefly practice that makes perfect in library handwriting.

Typewriting. — The use of the typewriter for cataloging purposes is becoming so common that some knowledge of the subject is desirable. Many librarians want applicants for positions who know how to use machine. Typewriting is taught in some of the schools, such course usually being optional. The instruction, however, cannot make of the students expert typists, otherwise the more important branches of library science will suffer neglect. Instruction consists in showing students how to use the typewriter with just enough practice to permit them to write somewhat slowly indeed but correctly. Instruction in writing on catalogue cards is also given, but in a short course practical cataloguing with the typewriter must be omitted, because the students cannot afford to spend the time in such slow work. Practice can be kept up after graduation if the student wishes to become more expert. The mechanical branches of study must give way to those that require the guidance of expert teachers in library science. If it were not for the fact that those who can typewrite often stand a better chance of securing positions, no attention would be given to this subject. It has been suggested that applicants for admission to library schools should be required to know how to typewrite and how to write the library hand, thus saving the time now given to these branches. Such a requirement would keep out of the schools many students who think that the present requirements are severe enough *).

*) **Kroeger, Alice B.** Instruction in cataloging in library schools. Library journal, 32 : 108-11, 1907.

Miss **Kroeger** was formerly head of the Library school of Drexel Institute.

Principles of cataloguing.

Some of the fundamental principles may seem more like rules than principles at first sight, but it is believed that they are well principled. However, it is not pretended that they are all the principles in sight; quite the contrary, there is quite a pocket-full of these left each with the memorandum of some principle, big or little, and there are but twenty-one here enumerated . . .

1. A catalogue is a name list of concrete or specific objects as distinguished from classes of objects; a list of plants in a botanical garden, of mineral specimens in a museum or books in a library; but a list of kinds of plants, minerals or books apart from concrete specimens is not. In the case of books such a list is a bibliography. The book catalogue is a directory or guide book to certain concrete books, the bibliography is a list of books in the abstract, applying equally whether its books exist in one place or another, or even if they no longer exist at all.

2. A library catalogue is a directory or guide book to books for use. The immediate object to publishers, new book dealers, book auctioneers or antiquarians is sale, the object to the librarian is use. This difference affects both the form of the catalogue and the description of the books.

3. Library catalogues in turn may be distinguished into catalogues for the administration (which include chiefly accessions catalogue and the shelf list) and those for direct use of readers (which include author, subject, title, imprint, etc., catalogues) — the special use in every case modifying the form of the catalogue.

4. Catalogues for readers differ according to the two needs of readers which the catalogues try to meet. These needs are (1) To find a given book; (2) to find a book or group of books of a given character. It is not quite exact to say under this second head, that the object is to find information on a given subject or topic, for it may be that the object is to find special forms such as incunabula or Venetian imprints, association books, fiction, poetry, drama, essays, orations, ballads, encyclopedias, dictionaries, periodicals, classes of rarities, books on vellum, etc.

5. The prime object of a library catalogue or directory to books for use resolves itself into a matter of the economy of time and attention. Where there are only two or three books in a man's library there is obviously little need of catalogue. As soon as there are many the guide book is needed. Whether, therefore, the catalogue is author

or subject, the controlling thought in its making is the economy of attention of the user.

6. The alphabetic order is on the whole the quickest reference order. The economic solution for these two needs proves, therefore, to be the two alphabetical catalogues (1) the author and title catalogue (2) the alphabetical subject catalogue. Title catalogues and the like are simply supplementary practical devices to aid inexperienced or forgetful readers.

The author and title catalogue is distinguished from the author and catch-word catalogue by the entry of anonymous titles under the first word rather than under the most significant word.

6 b. Following a natural evolution, the systematic library catalogue and the alphabetical classed catalogue are practically extinct species, overwhelmed in the struggle for existence by the alphabetical subject catalogues quick and ready reference. This economy is, to be sure, effected for the average use, at a very great expense to the use of a good many readers who wish to consider all related aspects of a topic, but with the growing habit of classification of libraries, there is in fact a handy substitute, for these readers, in the classification, its index, and the shelf list. The alphabet subject catalogue has thus become the recognized sole form of subject catalogue for users in general.

7. The nature and origin of the alphabetical subject catalogue is the same as that of the alphabetical encyclopedia, the alphabetical index to books and alphabetical index to a system of classification. Its rules and applications may, therefore, be guided by experience and practice in these three fields as well as direct experience in the alphabetical subject catalogue.

8. Habit being a chief factor in quick reference, it is important that the name of the subject should be that of common usage. By this is not meant necessarily the use of the common people, but the form generally used in book indexes, encyclopedias, and library classifications. It is greatly to be desired that all encyclopedias, classifications indexes, and alphabetical subject catalogues should use just the same terms — the same form among synonyms, the same practice as to singular or plural, adjectives or substantive entry.

9. At least the names of the subjects in the alphabetical subject catalogue should be identical with those of the alphabetical index to the systematic catalogue if there is any or the classification of its own library.

10. Whatever names are used must be clearly defined. This is the first principle of subject cataloguing, whether the arrangement is alphabetical or systematic, that the subject word shall be so clearly defined that there is no mistaking what is to go under it. It is hard to lay too much stress on this matter. It is the Alpha and Omega of subject cataloguing of every sort; besides which even uniform names and the question of arrangement are quite secondary.

11. In choosing the names for classes, the most specific should be used. This is a very important aid indeed to clear definition. The only objection is the splitting of kindred subjects — the same idea which leads to the alphabetical classed or systematic catalogue.

Many cautions are issued warning against being too specific — some well founded, but the danger lies almost wholly in the other direction. There may be a limit but the principle is one of the clearest and most important in the whole matter and even the encyclopedias — even the Britannica itself — are getting further and further away from the old Britannica type.

12. The names of subjects so far as they are identical with author catalogue entries should be determined by the same rules as in the author catalogue. This is another important aid to uniform names which should be strictly insisted on.

13. The alphabetical subject catalogue should have a classed index, as the classed catalogue or the shelf list must have an alphabetical index. Note that the index to the new Britannica by its alphabetical index recognizes itself as an alphabetical classed encyclopedia rather than an alphabetical subject encyclopedia. Note also that it has the systematic index — the idea which in the end must be applied to every alphabetical subject catalog and which will be fully served automatically if the names of the classification index are identical with the subject headings and the class number attached to each of the subject catalogue headings.

14. Sub-headings and sub-sub-headings should be alphabetically arranged. They should not be systematic or chronological.

15. Sub-headings should be chosen by the same rules and principles as main headings and thus make a duplicate list. There may be practical limits to this but principle is clear.

16. The arrangements of titles under main subject or sub-headings need not be alphabetical. Much is to be said for the chronological order of authorship or publication, but almost the only use for alphabetical arrangement by authors under heading is a poor duplication of author catalogue use. It might be a real

advantage to break the bad habit of using subject catalogue for author purposes and on the other hand, the chronological arrangement of titles in the vast number of cases would save turning all the cards as required in the alphabetical order. Nevertheless the alphabetical is now the common method.

17. Complex books may be analyzed for the subject catalogue. This is the distinctive advantage of the subject catalogue over the shelf list that it can put different articles in the same volume or various subjects involved in one title under all their effective headings. It is obvious, however, that this principle must be limited — to apply in a wooden way would involve all periodicals and essays, a rock on which more than one attempt at subject cataloguing has been wrecked.

18. The subject catalogue should not be overloaded with references. The principle of economy of attention requires this. Few things are more aggravating in working under subjects than to have to finger over a large number of irrelevant cards. Some of the remedies for this are subdivision, the arrangement in chronological order of publication as above suggested, limiting analysis by excluding all works analyzed in accessible indexes, and, one only and referring to the author catalogue for the others.

19. The card should not be overloaded with details. The principle of economy of attention involves reducing the amount of material in a title to its lowest terms (whether on card or printed book), a matter greatly helped by typographical distinctions or corresponding distinction in the breaking of written lines, the location of certain details on certain lines or certain fixed places on the card, the use of red ink, underscoring, and similar details enabling the user to get the essential facts as to the identity of the work and its location in the building in the shortest possible time.

20. The indications on the cards of either should be as brief as may consist with clearness and so displayed on the card as to catch the eye quickly.

21. Subject cataloguing is a practical method, not a science. Names will be changed from time to time and a part of the art is therefore to develop a method of record on cards which shall cost the least possible effort for making changes*).

*) **Richardson, E. C.** Fundamental Principles of Cataloguing, A. L. A. Bulletin, 6 : 234-37, 1912.

Dr. Richardson is consultant in research, Library of Congress.

Cataloguing the small library.

What use can be made of the printed Library of Congress cards? Are they worth-while for the smaller libraries? This is a question on which there is a difference of opinion. It seems to me that the printed cards are best for non-fiction wherever the library can possibly afford them. Ordering and checking up the orders have to be done carefully and take time; but on the other hand time is saved by not having to look up and decide on the form for the author's name and the information to be put on the cards. The subject headings which are given on the cards are also very helpful. A good typist can catalogue, if she is given Library of Congress cards, the call number of the book, the approved subject headings, and has the added cards indicated. For fiction, only the author, title and number of volumes are needed; and typing them will be found quite as satisfactory as ordering the printed cards.

Has the library enough aids for cataloguing? Economy in this direction is inadvisable. Watch for new aids and purchase them without delay. There should be aids for classification, for names and for subject headings. The list of subject headings chosen as authority must be carefully checked for headings used and cross references made, and additional headings must be added.

To secure uniformity some authority must be followed such as the A. L. A. catalogue rules, Fellow's Cataloguing rules or the Wisconsin Library School catalogue rules. Adopt one and keep it properly checked and annotated; or keep notes on cards or sheets of the library's policy, where it varies from the standard adopted. This is necessary in order to keep a catalogue from becoming erratic and from showing too plainly how many people have made it.

To enumerate the necessary information for the author or unit card there is: (1) the author's name in moderate fullness; do not spend much time in looking up full names. (2) the title, including as much of it as will add to the user's knowledge of the book. (3) the imprint, which should be simplified so as to include only publisher (and the publisher may be omitted) and date of publication or latest copyright date. (4) collation; the number of volumes, illustrations, maps, are all that are necessary. (5) series notes, if series is important. (6) contents, as for a collection of essays. (7) notes for such information as bibliographies, statements of where the material was previously published, etc. Cards for

fiction would have only author, title, no imprint and as collation only the number of volumes.

Additional cards: If the title is striking and the book is apt to be called for by title, make a title card. The title, author and number of volumes is all the information needed for this card. Subject cards will have the same form as the author or unit card. Use subject headings that your public understand and keep them up-to-date.

Smaller libraries need less bibliographical information on their cards and more analytic cards. The smaller the collection of books the more analytics are needed to bring out what is in it. Reference work with schools calls for a great many analytics. No set rule can be given as to when analytics should be made. One page on a contemporary author, about whom there is very little material, might well have an analytic made for it. In taking into account the time required to make analytics, also consider the time saved when looking up information on that subject. The card is only made once, but it may be used many times.

Shall smaller libraries have a name-list? A real name-list is unnecessary in a small library which uses Library of Congress cards, for they give full names and the correct form of entry. For the cards that are typed, full names in the form decided upon will be found in the catalogue or in reference books. But a name-list should be kept for authors about whom there is a question as to which form of entry shall be adopted by the library; and it should include the cross references that have been made and filed in the catalogue.

The catalogue case should, I think, be mentioned in a paper on this subject, for carefully made catalogue cards are of little value if they are packed into an ill-fitting case with insufficient guide cards.

The case should be of the unit type, so that it may be expanded whenever necessary and without too much expense. Its trays should be carefully labeled, and if more than 60, each tray and its corresponding place in the cabinet should be numbered. Guide cards should be placed at intervals of about one inch. The printed ones look very nice indeed and the words on them are well chosen for the small public library.

Filing must be done accurately. It affords an opportunity to note mistakes and inconsistencies in the catalogue and to check up on author and subject entries. Filing should always be revised. If the librarian does it, she should revise her own work later that

day or the next day. The element of fatigue enters into this work and makes some mistakes almost inevitable. In filing you see your catalogue more as a whole, and you should be on the alert to detect any unevenness in its development.

The children's catalogue should be separate from the adult and low enough for the older children to reach. The cards should be very simple, just author, title, date and number of volumes. More title and analytic cards will be necessary here than for the adult catalogue.

Last but not least, you should teach your public how to use the catalogue. Time spent in doing this will be well repaid. First, put a sign on or near the catalogue telling how to use it; (2) have the school children come to the library by grades and instruct them in its use; (3) when you look up something in the catalogue for someone let them see how you do it*).

Selective cataloguing in Harvard University Library.

In the preparation of this paper I have not inquired into experiments made in this direction by other libraries, for a survey of this nature would have necessitated a "questionnaire", and I am quite sure I owe you no apology for its omission. It is for you in any discussion that may follow to call attention to similar experiments and to point out under what conditions such methods may not produce a happy result. Two standards must be kept in mind in judging our practices; first, that of their intrinsic value as producing a catalogue ideally suited to certain ends, and second, their bearing on the cost of cataloguing, a serious item in library budgets. In other words, is so-called selective cataloguing to be adopted only because it may cut down the financial burden, or because it is in itself desirable?

The more detailed exposition of what we are doing must be introduced by a few words indicating our special situation at Harvard as affecting cataloguing; for methods used must vary in different institutions according to clientele and character of the library and the policies in view. Methods suitable for a large

*) **Akers, Susan Grey.** Cataloguing problems in smaller libraries. Public Libraries, 27: 470-72, 1922.

Miss **Akers** is assistant professor in the University of Wisconsin Library School.

university library may not in all details be adapted to a college or a public library, tho a study of selective methods should be useful to all.

The Harvard library is *not* concerned with the diffusion of books and reading among the whole population of its region as it would be were it a city library maintained by public funds, and our card catalogue does not, therefore, have to provide for the needs of persons of all ages and every degree of culture, intelligence and intellectual experience. For convenience I may divide our public into three classes: the undergraduate, the specialist at work in his own field, and the student or scholar of any degree of experience who is for the moment touching unfamiliar ground. The undergraduate has his work mapped out for him. It is the duty of his teachers closely to supervise his reading, and they or the reference librarians should initiate him into the mysteries of using encyclopedias and bibliographies when preparing a thesis and teach him to select the best book on a topic. In common with other college libraries we offer to our students a reserved book collection to which they have immediate access. We have a special library of standard literature for browsing and cultural reading, and there are numerous well selected class-room libraries attached to the several departments of instruction. As for the card catalogue, we plan to facilitate in every way the prompt locating of a book, the existence of which is known, and in developing the subject headings we have tried to spare the student that hopeless feeling that comes to a person confronted with a tray full of cards and without proper subdivisions. We have tried, futhermore, by methods which I shall describe, to avoid confusing our students by the presence of useless or worse than useless titles. If a man wishes to consult a comprehensive life of Voltaire, why make him wade thru four inches of cards? Why not segregate the comprehensive works behind a special guide card, and then if there are too many titles for a speedy survey, eliminate the old and worthless?

The genuine student as he uses the library soon discovers that he is in touch with a vast storehouse of books, that our central building and the departmental libraries together contain to a greater degree than in most other libraries overwhelming quantities of books, pamphlets, and periodicals, good, bad, and indifferent, in all branches of knowledge. When the student is properly directed in his research, new paths open in every direction, and none of them leads to a point at which it can be said that there is nothing

beyond. The beginner thus merges into the research worker, and to such comes speedy realization that the biggest and most detailed library catalogue can never list his literature completely; he must comb the bibliographies; the books he consults point out new writers to study and allied subjects to be explored; a systematic survey must be undertaken of the books, periodicals, and pamphlets touching his study that are available in the stacks; and an eagle eye must be kept on current publications. In fact, each research student soon finds that he must compile his own catalogue, and this catalogue embraces not merely books in any one building or any one locality, but all discoverable books and even manuscripts wherever available. In addition to books and pamphlets he will list papers in journals and in society transactions, single chapters here and there, encyclopedia articles, and even extracts from newspapers that could never be normally listed in a library card catalogue. Those who come in touch with alert and successful scholars know many who have in their fields compiled just such catalogues.

To facilitate research of this nature, Harvard like other American universities has at considerable expense freely opened her book stacks to the properly accredited student. Those who have the privilege highly value this immediate access to the shelves of a large and carefully classified collection, and we frequently hear our students who return to us from abroad deplore the necessity in foreign libraries of approaching the books always thru the medium of the catalogue. Now experience shows that the scholar who has immediate access to the shelves demands in his own field of study but little from the subject headings of our catalogue. He does demand clear-cut, accurate, and easily found references to individual publications, but in a large library I believe all who have given any thought to the matter admit the impossibility with any reasonable expenditure of money of accumulating under a subject heading the titles of all publications concerning it.

We have characterized the work, first, of the undergraduate and, second, of the specialist in his own field of study. A third class must be kept in mind in our work on the catalogue. I have already alluded to him; he is the student who may or may not be an expert but who for the moment needs a book relating to a field of study more or less unfamiliar to him; a professor of Sanskrit for the moment interested in relativity, or the student of physics wishing to investigate Vedic philosophy. This person will turn to our subject headings for quick reference to a treatise on any

desired topic. He might of course go first to an encyclopedia or bibliography, draw up a list of desirable books, and then consult the author catalogue to see if we have them, but we can spare him this double searching and save his time and steps by listing under our subject headings titles he may need.

Our survey of these three classes of persons frequenting a large university library has brought us to these conclusions: In developing the card catalogue we must facilitate in every way the finding of a book whose existence is known to the student; it is well, furthermore, to bring together under the various subject headings certain titles that will be useful not only to the undergraduate but to any person, including the mature student, who is entering upon an unfamiliar field. It is not necessary, however, and in a large library it is impossible, to list under a subject heading all the material desired by the advanced worker. In other words, our catalogues cannot serve as bibliographies, but are built up under the assumption that they are supplemented and often supplanted by the classified collections of books in the stacks freely open to those who are qualified to use them.

It is my purpose now to take up one by one certain rulings resulting from the conclusions thus outlined. Studying first the habits of the undergraduate, we discover that except for certain literary texts his reading is almost wholly confined to works in English. A little use is made of French, but his calls for books in German, Italian, and Spanish are few and confined almost wholly to assigned readings; there is practically no use of other languages than those I have enumerated, unless indeed in such a case as a group of students from China whose needs can be specially handled. Our first rule, framed for the undergraduate, is then, to assign subject headings with freedom to books written in English, less freely to books in French, and with far less freedom to books in other languages. This rule to be sure, will suit the needs of the undergraduate, but it will exclude many titles useful to the mature scholar to whom I have already referred, who is for the moment touching an unfamiliar field. For his sake we expand the rule and allow subject headings with freedom when we are cataloguing any useful books written in any of the ordinary European languages, as for instance a useful treatise in German on relativity. One other situation leads us to insert freely a book in a foreign language, and that is when it at the same time relates in subject matter to the country or people speaking the language in which it is written.

Thus a Portuguese book on Lisbon may receive a subject card, but a Portuguese book on London would not, unless special considerations made one particularly desirable. Even an undergraduate studying Italian literature may make good use of an Italian essay on Ariosto, but is little likely to read a German essay on the same subject, while a student of German literature will be just as likely to read an Italian essay on Schiller.

When it comes to the languages less frequently read, we make the subject heading the exception rather than the rule, for few of our students who wish to read Polish history, for example, will know Polish. We have, to take a concrete instance, a good collection of books in Russian and Polish, but it is only meagerly represented by subject cards. This field is fairly well provided with bibliographical aids. The collection is in major part kept in one section of the stacks and is well classified. It is being accumulated for the use of research students, and because of the languages involved the number who can use it is limited. It consists of long sets of archives, studies of minute events of history, statistical and descriptive works, political pamphlets, treatises and texts in the field of theology and liturgy of the Orthodox Greek church, and many similar works of the kind that go to form the baggage of a specialist in these subjects. The expense of recording these treatises under subject headings with Library of Congress fullness would be enormous, not only because of the language of the books, but because of the subjects involved. It is far better to put money into purchasing new books than into assigning subject headings. For a collection like this, subject headings are limited to modern comprehensive treatises; to bibliographies, dictionaries, encyclopedias and other works of reference, to periodicals and at times to certain books which would otherwise be hard to trace because of complicated and obscure author headings. The classifier is moreover always cordial towards biography, and he would not pass over richly illustrated books, for a history of modern Russian art replete with reproductions will be interesting even to those who cannot read the inscriptions on the plates.

As for pamphlets our "selective" rules follow the same principles as for books, but with a greater limitation all along the line. English pamphlets should normally have no more than one subject card, and while books in the better known languages may be given subject headings with fair freedom, pamphlets in these same languages should be so treated only when there is a really

good and sufficient reason, and pamphlets in the lesser language ordinarily appear in the catalogue only under their author's names.

Our language rule as amended now reads: Assign subject headings freely to books in English, less freely to French, sparingly to German, Italian, Spanish and Latin, and only by exception to books in the little known languages. Furthermore, books in German, Italian, and Spanish should with some freedom and in lesser languages may with a sparing hand be given subject headings when their subject matter relates immediately to the country speaking the language in which the book is written. Bibliographies, biographies, encyclopedias, dictionaries, periodicals and richly illustrated books are always candidates for subject headings without regard to language if sufficiently "live", and the classifier is always invited to make an exception in favor of a book which appears particularly useful.

Still having in mind the needs of the undergraduate and the person working in an unfamiliar field we formulate another rule. It is a bit illogical, but it is practical, for it must be remembered that our classifiers cannot always be in a position to test for all subjects the comparative value of different treatises. We assume that the Library of Congress is keeping up a well-rounded collection and that theoretically it will have the really important treatises in all subjects. It is not too much to expect that it will take some pains to select all that are useful to the young student, and our own library in turn will normally acquire the same books in fields within our scope. If, then, we are free in inserting Library of Congress cards of a certain type under subject headings, we shall automatically have a representative selection of books thus recorded. This rule of thumb is economical, for it presumably costs less to insert a subject card for a Library of Congress title than for one for which we must prepare our own card. The rule leads, of course, to inconsistencies, it may cause us to neglect a book or subject neglected by the Library of Congress and by intent or chance taking its place on our shelves, or *per contra* it may lead to inserting lesser writings acquired in regular course and catalogued by the Library of Congress; but as a whole the plan is good.

Next to the question of language the question of publication date arises. Do you not agree that the general headings in our card catalogs too frequently present to the reader a vast alphabetic mass of antiquated titles that serve only to conceal the up-to-date treatises? The reader who searches for a recent book on astronomy

may, if he is of good courage, wade thru several inches of cards in selecting a book suited to his needs. Our cure is to wipe out the older titles from under these general headings. The person who needs the books thus eliminated will be led to them by the encyclopedias and by the comprehensive works, and when referred to Kepler or Pickering he will automatically turn to the author entries. As to lesser writers not referred to in encyclopedias or bibliographies, are they not in their proper place on our shelves for the rare student who must have them? The titles under our general headings are, as a result, confined to live systematic treatises and certain other works, especially those of recent date, even tho they may be definite in character. The existence of a satisfactory bibliography will guide in determining what may be safely excluded.

Having thus considered the language of the book and its date of publication, we look at it also from the point of view of its technical character; for its claims to inclusion under a subject heading become less and less as it is less and less useful to the general student. It is true that a treatise which is comprehensive will be given the benefit of the doubt and assigned a subject card even tho it may be so highly technical in character that it is likely to be used but little by the ordinary person. Also, a comprehensive work may be included even tho written in a less known language; a comprehensive history in Russian of the literature of the Georgians in Asia would be useful under the proper heading; but a technical treatise on a special phase of some abstruse subject would not be represented by a subject card, for it would not be useful to the class of person who ordinarily depends on subject cards for guidance. An example of such an instance would be a treatise on the regeneration of the root tips of the genus *Elodea*. This ruling throws out from subject headings large classes of books and pamphlets like German doctoral dissertations, and thanks to it, we are able at regularly recurring intervals to assure our Reference Department that the Catalogue Department has sent along every last doctor's dissertation received. In spite of their absence from our subject headings these publications are sufficiently accessible in view of their being filed in a classified stack and in view of the additional possibilities of discovering them listed in such publications as the annual list of German university publications, the *Bibliotheca Philologica Classica*, and other professional journals and indexes.

For books that are not too abstruse the rule holds that the more specific or minute the topic, the more tempted we are to assign it a subject heading; thus, minor biography, local history, legends, treatises on minor languages are receiving subject cards even tho they are not likely to be needed by the general student. This tendency is excusable on several grounds; a minute topic is easily hidden in the stack classification of a large library and may be less easily run down in bibliographies; again, such headings can ordinarily be assigned without great labor, and what may be done for five cents may be worth it, but not worth a dollar; then too, under a very minute topic there is no danger of a confusing accumulation of cards. I presume that minor works in the historical, political and social sciences and literature are with us receiving subject cards more freely than mathematics and science. This may be due to the development of a library in which the subjects first mentioned play a preponderating role; in part because the subjects lend themselves more easily to subject headings, and even a classifier turns to paths of least resistance; but chiefly, I judge, because the fields of mathematics and pure science have been better covered by bibliographies and journals, and the work of the lesser writer in these fields is ordinarily less worthy of attention. An unknown eyewitness may contribute something of value in the study of history, and a man untrained in historic writing may give valuable sidelights on the life of a president with whom he has been associated from day to day, but the untrained scientist can have nothing to offer to the research worker in physics and astronomy.

The elimination of old editions under subject headings need not delay us, for I believe the practice is widespread of referring to the author's name for details regarding them.

The rulings for assignment of subject cards so far discussed contribute to the formation of a catalog well adapted to the person who is not a specialist, since they contribute to simplicity of form and to inclusion of essential recent titles, especially of books that are introductions to and give a general survey of a subject. I have tried to show moreover that the more advanced student does not suffer, for he normally gets at his material in other ways than from our subject headings, and will himself be the first to admit that the expense of compiling a subject catalog that could satisfy him and at the same time every other research student would be too enormous to be a possibility.

One thing at least we can and should do for the specialist.

We should acquire and list all possible bibliographies, periodicals, and reference works. The knowledge of the existence of a treatise or article is one step in the direction of having it in hand, and an exact reference to where it may be found is a much longer stride. The Harvard catalogue should be improved in this respect. In the large library centers to-day there is an ever growing possibility any title cited in a bibliography may be found close at hand, and judging by the number of union lists in progress, the possibility is growing of locating it elsewhere.

Now that I have outlined our rules for what is being named "selective cataloguing", a word or two should be said regarding their effectiveness in lessening the cost of our work. You who are practical workers in large libraries realize how frequently it happens that the shelf classification of a book is not difficult, while the assignment of subject headings for the same book is a time-consuming process. This is especially true of books in lesser known languages, of subjects no longer alive, or of technical pamphlets on abstruse subjects; you are also familiar with those books, the despair of cataloguers, that are almost impossible to classify because their authors either do not know what they want to say, or else do not know how to say it. The elimination of the time spent in debating and investigating books of this character will, you must agree, contribute materially to lowering the cost of our work: and our experience would indicate that, for us, this gain in economy is not offset by any serious loss of usefulness to our Library. I presume that libraries exist whose conditions are such as to make necessary exhaustive and complete catalogues, and it is to be hoped their appropriations for cataloguing will continue to be large enough to accomplish their aims; but it certainly is the duty of each head cataloguer to assure himself that the money is being well spent before he commits his staff to long discussions on out-of-date and worthless literature and on books that can be seldom used because written in little known tongues, and every cataloguer should think twice before he allows such titles to cumber his catalogue trays and hide the really worth while.

This question of high costs brings up one more phase of selective cataloguing which I must touch on before closing. So far I have discussed only subject headings. Is selective cataloguing ever excusable as applied to entire omission of catalogue entry?

The necessity of accurate and clearly arranged author headings to ensure prompt tracing of essential books is axiomatic. We agree

that every monograph should be recorded properly under its author. How about monographs issued as parts of series? Where is the boundary between monographs of this nature that must be recorded and the paper published in a society's proceedings? We must stop somewhere from sheer lack of funds. Then there is the pamphlet. Theoretically each pamphlet must have its author record, but is it not better to make available on the shelves in chronological order six thousand tracts covering the 17th century of English history and postpone even author entries than to lock them in your uncatalogued reserve until the necessary five hundred (or is it fifteen hundred) dollars are forthcoming to catalogue them? May not librarians who have in custody huge collections of contemporary and ephemeral matter be forced more and more to adopt methods by which the material is, so to speak, self-catalogued? Examples of self-cataloguing methods in our building are the English Civil War pamphlets alluded to, collections of South American political pamphlets, courses of study, rules and regulations and leaflets in our Education collection, a file of 50,000 songs, and the vast files of railroad material in the library of our Business School. Verily, selective cataloguing is already with us, not only as applied to omission of subject cards, but also as regards entire omission.

Permit me to sum up in a few phrases what I have tried to show you. The Harvard method of selective cataloguing distinguishes between the needs of two definite classes: on the one hand the undergraduate, with whom may be classed any person working in an unfamiliar field, and on the other hand the research man working in his own field and trained in ways of obtaining his materials. For the former it hopes to offer all that he needs, and to offer this to him in a way that is both concise and accessible. As to the latter, experience shows that he will not depend on the subject headings in the catalogue. As practically worked out, the method results in free omission of subject headings for books in foreign languages, for out-of-date books, for obsolete editions, and for technical treatises on abstruse subjects; it inclines toward recording under the correct subject headings comprehensive treatises, books of general interest, and live material on clearly defined and especially on minute topics*).

*) **Currier, Thomas Franklin.** Selective cataloguing at the Harvard Library, *Library Journal*, 49 : 673-77, 1924.

Mr. **Currier** is assistant librarian of Harvard College Library.

Cataloguing for branch libraries.

The position of permanent branch libraries is a rather unique one, for, while each branch is as complete a unit as any small town library, it is also a part of a big system and its rules and tools should be as nearly uniform as possible with those of the Central library and the other branches.

This applies particularly to the branch catalogue, which, while it shows the resources of a special collection, shows them in such a way that those familiar with the catalogue of the Central library should be able to use that of any of its branches with equal ease.

The best way to insure complete uniformity in the catalogues of the whole system is to centralize the work in the catalogue department. Beside the question of uniformity there is that of efficiency and economy. It stands to reason that the specially trained catalogue staff can do the same books for the Central library and for the branches with more speed and efficiency than for the staff of each branch to do all or part of its own cataloguing. The same decisions can be made and the same processes carried on for all at the same time, instead of being repeated several times in the separate branches.

The problems of branch cataloguing vary of course in different places, and in special branches, such as business or high school branches, etc., may require special treatment, but there are a few general principles, which, if followed, should make the subject simpler and easier.

First — To repeat what has been said, there should be uniformity and completeness in records. The branch, even though small, should have for its collection as full a catalogue as the Central library. The classification and the subject headings should be the same with all needed cross references. While meager records may serve as a makeshift until more complete ones can be made, it must be remembered that the branch collection is permanent, and the work will be hampered without a full, permanent catalogue.

Second — The official catalogue card should be a union card containing names of branches having book, so that at a glance it can be ascertained just where the books are placed in the system. If there is no official catalogue an alphabetical union branch list should be kept in the Central catalogue department.

Third — There should be a complete shelf list record for branches in the catalogue department as well as a shelf list in each separate branch.

Perhaps the best method of keeping the record at the Main library is to combine it with the Central shelf list, using consecutive copy numbers for main and branches distinguishing them by letters prefixed or added for branch numbers. This means a very close relationship between the Central library and branches. It is an advantage to be able to have one card include the record of everything, which more than offsets the possible inconvenience of having the combined copy numbers run rather high. By this method copy 6 for a branch book does not mean that there are five other copies there, but that it is the 6th copy in the whole system.

Another method which is good is for each branch to keep its own collection entirely separate as far as copies are concerned. In this case a union branch shelf card should be used containing separate records for each branch, this card, which may be of another color for convenience, to file behind the Central shelf card for the same book. It means that an extra card must always be made and the records are not quite as easy to consult as when the first method is used.

Fourth — A union branch list of subject headings should be kept up. It should indicate branches having heading and cross references. Whenever any new cards are sent to branches the headings should be checked by this list, new headings made and needed cross references ordered. All necessary cross references for personal names should also be added. The branch author card should contain tracing for headings.

Fifth — The catalogue department should keep the statistics of all branch books, not only of the additions but of withdrawals. After discards are taken from branch records they should be sent to the catalogue department to be taken from its records and to be incorporated in the final statistics of the whole system.

The Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh and the St. Paul Public Library both follow in a general way the methods outlined above. There are a few differences and many of the details vary.

In both libraries all the cataloguing is done by the Central catalogue department and they both keep up complete, uniform branch catalogues.

The Pittsburgh Library is much older than the St. Paul Library and it has a well-developed system of eight permanent branches, the first of which was opened in 1898. The total branch collections amount to 162,316. Each branch has its children's librarian and separate children's room and catalogue. The Library has a printing

department and bindery which modify somewhat the methods of duplication and the mechanical preparation of books for the shelves.

The four St. Paul branches are smaller and newer, the first three being opened in 1917. The total branch collections amount to 37,198 volumes. The branches do not have separate children's rooms nor children's librarians. The cards for juvenile branch books are filed into the adult catalogue. In case the need should arise for a separate juvenile catalogue it can easily be formed since the shelf list is separate for juvenile and adult branch books. The library has neither bindery nor printing department, the Library of Congress cards being used. The lack of these departments increases the amount of typing and mechanical work of the catalogue department in preparing not only the Central books for the shelves, but the many added copies for the branches.

The union official catalogue cards are similar in the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh and in the St. Paul Public Library. They have the names of branches stamped or printed on the main official card with a check for cards prepared and sent.

The shelf records differ. In Pittsburgh each branch has its own adult and juvenile shelf list of course. For adult books the main shelf list is a union Central and branch record arranged according to the first method described above, by which the copy numbers for the whole system are in one consecutive order. This has proved very satisfactory. For the juvenile books the second method is used. Each branch has its separate collection with a union branch shelf card containing the separate records. This is filed behind the official shelf card for the same book and is a pink card to be distinguished easily. The juvenile books are duplicated to such an extent, and, since no copy numbers are used twice, the first method might cause the records to grow a little unwieldy and the copy numbers might possibly run into thousands.

The St. Paul Public Library does not have a union shelf list as yet, and the branch shelf lists are still in the Central catalogue division. The branches add their copy records to the author cards in their catalogues. This is not a permanent arrangement and some time the shelf lists will be sent to the branches and union branch shelf cards made and filed in the Central shelf list according to the second Pittsburgh method.

Both libraries keep up a union list of branch subject headings. Pittsburgh furnishes the branches with "see" cards and St. Paul

provides them with "see" and "see also" cards. The branches in both libraries have all necessary personal name references.

Full statistics of all branch books are kept in the catalogue departments of the two libraries.

A centralized system of branch cataloguing is very desirable not only from the reader's point of view, who naturally expects to find in the permanent branch a catalogue uniform with that of the Central Library, but also as a matter of economy and efficiency in the administration of the library. The Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh and the St. Paul Public Library are good examples of such a centralized system at work*).

Cataloguing for a system of branch libraries.

The problem, for such it is, of cataloguing for a branch library system, whether or not that system has a main or central library, is much more involved than that of cataloguing for a single library housed under one roof. The latter situation seems elementary by comparison. The former is still sufficiently new to require occasional readjustment regarding methods and practice in general and in detail. It is with the first mentioned problem, as indicated by the title of my paper, that I shall deal.

In a branch system — of course I have in mind the New York and the Brooklyn public libraries principally, since it is with their methods I am most familiar — there is necessitated a seeming superfluity of detail, a multiplicity of processes that at first acquaintance appears confusing; a long distance needlessly traversed to reach the goal, but which is proven by the result to be a short cut of many careful steps to insure accuracy and completeness of record.

First of all, in order that the work may be done as systematically, as uniformly and as expeditiously as possible, a union catalogue and a union shelf list of all the books contained in the system, in whatever branch they may be located, should be accessible on cards, the one in alphabetic, the other in classed order,

*) **Moon, Amy C.** Principles of cataloguing for branch libraries: Illustrated by the methods of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh and the St. Paul Public Library. Paper read at the Catalogue Section of the **A. L. A. Meeting**, Detroit, 1922.

Miss **Moon** is head of the Catalogue Division, St. Paul Public Library.

at the central library, or lacking such, at the main branch or administration offices. By this means only is it possible for the library to avoid duplication of book orders, and prevent duplication of and errors and inconsistencies in class and book numbers and subject headings. Unless each branch is to be treated like an independent library, and each librarian permitted to classify her own collection and assign her subject headings independently of what the other branches have done or are doing, a centralization of the kind such as I have just mentioned is necessary and unavoidable. In no other direct way is uniformity possible, and by no other route not circuitous may the many and varied items of information so frequently called for be obtained.

The amount of information to be given on the main catalogue card would vary according to the size and the potential growth of the library under consideration. If the branches are many, and the collections therein varied, fuller information is desirable as a time saving device in noting differences in editions, etc. Systems in which the branch collections are practically duplicates one of another need not go into as much detail. The various branches and stations, however, in which a book is contained, should be indicated on the main card, in order that the book order department, the interchange department and any inquiring librarian or borrower may ascertain at a glance where the book may be found. On the union shelf list card for each book should be recorded not only the branches containing the book, but the number of copies in each branch and the history of each one; i. e., whether still doing active service among the reading public, or whether lost, discarded or transferred to another branch. In this wise only can the strength of the various classes in the different branches be accurately computed, and increased or diminished as occasion demands, with the least possible expenditure of time.

To compile statistics of any description relating to the books of a branch system without a union catalog and shelf list means drawing them in from the branches separately and individually, a process which spells delay and uncertainty. Of the value of these two records in interchange work, or, as some libraries term it, inter-branch loan work, little need be said; every system of branch libraries attempting to work successfully in this field has found it immeasurable. The books asked for by borrowers at the various branches may here be looked up one day and sent for the next, if not the same day, to the branches possessing them. The book order

department is thus enabled to avoid ordering duplicates or too many copies of any one book, and to ascertain the cost or any other item of information regarding a book that has passed through its department.

In the Brooklyn Public Library, the difference between the union catalogue and the branch catalogues lies mainly in the brevity of the entries on the cards, main and secondary, in the branch catalogues, but does not affect the form or number of subject headings in the least. The same subject headings which are assigned for the union catalogue are assigned for the branch catalogues, and the same amount of analytic work, if not more, is done for the latter as for the former. Sometimes, in fact whenever it seems desirable, books are analyzed more minutely for the branches than is considered necessary for the main catalogue, which, because of its *quantity* of material, often does not require this close work. The branch librarian is not only permitted but encouraged to report to the superintendent any requests for subjects that have come to her from the borrowers and to make any suggestions regarding new subjects or criticism regarding those in use, as often as desirable. Regarding that most important, shall I say *branch* of cataloguing, the subject heading work, there is chance for infinite variety, but with the A. L. A. list of subject headings and those indicated on the Library of Congress cards, reinforced by the broad-mindedness and common sense of the alert cataloguer, there ought to result a complete, understandable and satisfactory subject catalogue. Constant vigilance and open-mindedness are the price of an up-to-date subject catalogue.

Many libraries are advocating the use of modified or simplified headings for the children's catalogue, yet thus far I have not seen any cogent reason for such a departure. Children remain children for so short a time and graduate from the juvenile to the adult books and catalogue in so few years that for this reason alone it would seem inadvisable to necessitate their learning practically two sets of headings . . . Children do not require and do not deserve this "talking down" to them which we are so ready to give; they do not need baby headings. As well give them the standards in words of one syllable and so ground in their plastic minds the idea that they exist in this form only. It simply spoils all their later enjoyment in and appreciation of the best in literature . . .

. . . I will briefly outline the various processes, in their logical order, through which a book is put in the Brooklyn public library before it is ready for circulation.

In the first place, before the new book orders are sent to the agent for purchase, they are looked up in the depository catalogue, and Congressional cards are ordered for as many branches as are indicated on the order slip, and when received these are dated on the back and filed in alphabetic order to await the coming of the books . . . If new to the system and if the author is not already represented by other works in the catalogue, it goes first to the reference assistant for full name, then to the classifier to have class and book number assigned, then to the "subject header", then back to the assistant who looked it up in the first place, who makes the full catalogue slip and marks the book for branch cataloguing on the title page, indicating subjects and cross references on the verso of the title page. Congressional cards for the branch are looked up and placed in the book if there are any.

The catalogue slip is left in the book and revised by the superintendent, after which the slip is removed and the book placed on its special shelf ready to be sent to the branch to which it was assigned. There the branch cards are made — a mere matter of copying, since the actual work has been done at headquarters — and sent to headquarters, to be revised before being filed in the branch catalogue.

Should the book be new but the author in the catalogue, the same processes are pursued with the exception that the book does not go to the reference assistant. If the book is already in the catalogue but new to the branch getting it, the assistant looking it up marks it for branch cataloguing from the main card already in the union catalogue, and makes a brief instead of a full entry on the catalogue slip, giving merely call number, author's surname and brief title. This slip is not left in the book, but is given to a special assistant who later enters it in the union catalogue and union shelf list, after which it is sent to the book order department, there compared with the book order slip and both destroyed.

For the union catalogue, we make wholesale references from a subject to the shelf list, as for example, "Physics, see class 530 in the shelf list".

For the branch catalogue, we make references from the subject to the shelves, reading, "Physics, see books on shelves in class 530".

For both union and branch catalogues, for titles of various editions of the same work, we make a title card, with a note reading "For other editions see the Author"; or, for Shakespeare and

certain of the classic writers, we make a title reference, reading "Hamlet, see Shakespeare"; "Odyssey, see Homer", etc.

One more way of lessening the work of the Brooklyn public library cataloguing without detriment to that work is now under consideration — that of eliminating entirely the process of accessioning, without the substitution of another record. The one necessary item of information usually afforded by the accession record only, the cost of the book, may be added to the shelf list card. For the union shelf list the source also may be indicated *).

Cataloguing maps.

Before 1907 the library possessed a few maps other than the topographic, geological and economic maps received from government offices. These latter were kept in wooden map cases of the usual type. Other single maps of any specific interest were cut, mounted, folded and placed on the regular shelves like books. Maps of less significance were placed with the pamphlets.

With the receipt of the gift of Dr. Mortimer Frank in 1907 it was decided to treat maps, charts and similar material as distinct from the books and pamphlets. A special map accession book was made up; and all material entered in this book received the letter M, before the accession number. This letter is also prefixed to the call numbers. The maps were classified in 940-999 of the decimal classification, and placed in large manila folders; these were placed in wooden cabinets similar to those already in use. When the Ehrenburg collection began to be handled, it was found that a more specific classification would have to be used; and geological maps were classed in 550, transportation maps in 656.

Special boxes of reinforced boards were therefore ordered, 41 in. long, 29 in. deep, and 3 and three eights inches high. These were placed on a special steel stack. The boxes contain usually more than one folder of maps; but in some cases the maps belonging to the same group are numerous enough to fill a whole box, or even two boxes.

Although the rule has been to group the maps and put each group together in a folder, a certain number of individual maps have

*) **Hitchler, Theresa.** Cataloguing for a system of branch libraries. A. L. A. Bulletin, 3: 397-400, 1909.

Miss **Hitchler** is head cataloguer of the Brooklyn Public Library.

been placed in folders by themselves. This has been done with maps consisting of several sheets, with important maps issued by government bodies, with maps by Emile Levasseur and other well-known cartographers.

The cataloguing rules for the map collection are still being compiled. The special collections are given very brief entries, as

Maps of Wisconsin — counties.

Maps of Wisconsin — railways.

Maps. Transportation maps of the world.

The collation consists of the single word "Portfolio", and no size is given. A complete list of the maps in these folders is kept in the map shelf-list.

The entries for single maps follow regular cataloguing rules as to heading, title, and imprint. The collation consists of a statement of the number of sheets or sections followed by the size, i.e.,

1 map, 110 × 114 cm.

1 map in 12 sections, each 54 × 46 cm.

The size is measured from the border of the actual map and not from the edge of the margin*).

Notes on the care of maps.

It is easier and more economical to divide a collection of maps and charts broadly into three groups of (a) sheets, (b) dissected or folded maps, (c) roller maps.

(a) Sheets. These should be kept as far as possible in the state of original issue, *without any folds*, as every fold eventually tends to weaken the sheet. Our largest drawers are about 53 inches long, 40 inches from back to front, and two inches deep, inside measurement. This size enables us to keep nearly all U. S. coast survey, hydrographic office and foreign charts unfolded, although in some cases they have to be folded in half. Sets of charts, like the two foregoing, are kept in numerical succession agreeing with numbers of the printed catalogues of their respective departments, and are not included in any geographical subdivision, as is the case with loose miscellaneous maps . . . On the other hand, collections of government maps, or even those of private firms, on a uniform

*) **Josephson, A. G. S.** The care of maps at the John Crerar Library. A. L. A. Bulletin, 46: 263, 1922.

scale, are not catalogued as to each sheet, but one reference card refers to the whole series, and itself refers to the catalogue or index map issued with the maps by the government or firms issuing them. As, for instance, the various states of the U. S. Topographical Survey, issued by the Geological Department, are represented by one card only for each state . . .

In no case should sheets on a uniform scale be bound up, as they are meant to be placed side by side when consulted, and their value is greatly impaired unless this is possible. Miscellaneous sheets should all be arranged in manila paper, in whatever geographical arrangement seems best to the librarian, and no arbitrary rule can be laid down, as it must entirely depend upon the extent of the stock as to what subdivision is necessary.

While I have adopted the general idea of keeping all sheets of a given continent together as far as the shelves, etc., would permit, I have frequently had to break up a regular volume and adapt myself to the necessities of the fixtures supplied by the library.

(b) Dissected or folded maps. These are of such an extremely varied character that I have adopted pamphlet boxes as far as possible, to receive the various waifs and strays of all sizes below a certain standard, and placed those boxes with the larger maps of that character in their geographical sequence, not A. B. C.

(c) Roller maps, whether mounted on muslin with rollers and ledges; or not mounted and without such attachments, I arrange strictly in A, B, C order, regardless of geographical position or chronological order, as their number is comparatively so small that a more detailed subdivision or analysis would merely be a waste of time.

As to classification, I have generally adopted the rule of the British Museum map catalog, placing every map strictly in A, B, C order according to its title; but inasmuch as that institution does not recognize Saint, San, Cape, Old, New, North or South as parts of the title, but only adjuncts, I have to some extent departed from their rule in favor of that adopted in Lipincott's *Gazetteer*, the U. S. *Postal Guide*, and Bullinger's list of places in the United States and Canada. In cases where a map covers many states of this country, it is generally entered as *United States, Parts of*; or if it embraces indiscriminately parts of Canada, United States and Mexico, it would be classified as *North America, Parts of*. I have found it extremely difficult satisfactorily to dispose of the early

maps of this country, which under the name of Canada, Louisiana, New Netherlands, New Belgium, New England, etc., cover ground which varied in its significance and area at different periods of history *).

Cataloguing music.

The Newcomb School of Music at the H. Sophie Newcomb College, New Orleans, has recently catalogued its collection, using for the purpose some devices of Librarian Esther Finlay Harvey's choosing to meet problems not touched in Miss Hooper's pamphlet on the music library.

The books and scores are kept in separate stacks. All unbound music is put in Gaylord Pamphlet covers. It is first stitched down the middle, and in case there is an odd leaf, it is hinged with a Gaylord strip and then stitched. This permits the music to be opened flat. When the cover of the score has no music on the reverse, it is trimmed, marked with a call number and pasted on the outside of the pamphlet cover. Where there is printing on the reverse of the cover, a P slip is typewritten with the name of the composer and title of the score (with the call number in the lower left hand corner) and this is pasted on the pamphlet cover.

Dewey Decimal classification is used for both books and scores. There is a main directory catalogue for both books and scores which are distinguished one from the other by using white cards (Library of Congress cards when available) for the books, and blue cards for the scores. In filing, the white cards precede the blue:

Saint-Saens

- Musical memories (white card).
- Portraits et souvenirs (white card).
- Allegro appassionato (blue card).
- Danse macabre (blue card).
- Samson and Delilah (blue card).

As Miss Hooper suggests the subject cards for scores are kept in a separate drawer after the main catalogue and constitute a classed catalogue.

*) **Letts, Thomas.** Notes on the care of maps. Library journal, 26: 688-89, 1904.
Mr. Letts formerly had charge of the maps at the New York Public Library.

For a small library with limited service, it was found more practical to keep all piano music by individual composers under 786, instead of classifying by duets, and two pianos, four hands, etc. However, when the composition warranted it, subject headings were made for:

Music. Piano. Duets.

Music. Two pianos, four hands.

Music. Two pianos, eight hands.

Music. Orchestral music arranged for piano.

To distinguish different arrangements of the same composition, Miss Snodgrass, the secretary of the Newcomb School of Music, Advises using "D" for duets, "4" for two pianos, four hands, "8" for two pianos, eight hands.

Rimsky-Korsakow.

Sheherazade, piano, 2 hands, 786 R46s.

Rimsky-Korsakow.

Sheherazade, 2 pianos, four hands, 786 R46s4.

For voluminous composers the opus is added to the call number:

Skriabin

Trois morceaux. Op. 49. 786 Sk6m49.

Trois morceaux. Op. 52. 786 Sk6m52.

Quatre morceaux. Op. 51. 786 Sk6m51.

Cinq préludes. Op. 16. 786 Sk6p16.

Quatre préludes. Op. 22. 786 Sk6p22.

Quatre préludes. Op. 37. 786 Sk6p37.

This arrangement keeps the same types of compositions, as "Morceaux" and "Préludes", together on the shelves*).

Cataloguing incunabula; tentative rules.

1. Entries for incunabula which have already been adequately described in a catalogue or bibliography are to contain the following items:

1) Statement, consisting of author's name, conventional title, and imprint.

2) Collation, consisting of pagination, signatures, folding symbol and size in centimeters.

*) Cataloguing the small music collection. Library journal, 49: 227, 1924.

- 3) Additional authors, editor, translator.
- 4) Notes on scope, contents, etc.
- 5) References to bibliographies giving full description.
- 6) Notes on copy: former owners, binding, marginal ms. notes, rubrication, details about incompleteness, etc.

Notes:

1) *Statement*: If a book is known by a conventional title, although this is not used exactly in the edition in hand, the conventional title is to be used in the heading; in the imprint, use the form of the name of the place as in the book; give as a rule the name of the printer (publisher) in the form adopted by the British Museum, and the date in Arabic numerals: if a book is not dated, give a conjectural date, as near as possible, and always month and day, if known or conjectured; explain all conjectures in a note; use brackets in the statement only for enclosing information as to imprint supplied from sources other than the book.

2) *Collation*: If a book is unpagged, give the foliation rather than the pagination, mentioning incompleteness, viz.: 320 leaves (leaf 20 wanting); when many leaves are wanting give exact number of leaves; 320 leaves (incomplete); in the latter case mention in note (N^o 6) the missing leaves.

3) Give *additional authors*, if not in contents note.

4) *Note on scope, contents, etc.*: Efforts should be made, by use of reference works, to state the full and real scope of the book in hand; contents should be given in preference to a note.

5) *References to bibliographies*: These should be given in the following order: The one giving the best and fullest description, then Hain (with Copinger and Reichling), British Museum, others.

In 4 the special typographical forms used should be reproduced. If any part quoted be in capital letters, use small capitals for contractions, etc. not lower case.

6) Significant variations from copies described, to be noted.

Example.

Petrus Hispanus, d. 1277.

Thesaurus pauperum. (Florence, Bartolommeo di Libri, 1495?).
(94) leaves, a-z, & 4^o. Type 92 Qu|.

No catchwords. 16 1/2 c.m.

1 Qui in comincia illibro chiamata
thesoro de poueri || compilato et facto
per maestro piero spano. (Woodcut.)

93 ends: Finis.

94 ends: alla quartana capitolo lxii a
carte lxxxx.

Woodcut on 1 shows a surgeon's shop.

Table of contents 93-94.

Perrins (Pollard) p.93; Hain 8714;

Reichling v, p.144; Proctor 6257.

Modern vellum.

Fol. e¹ and e⁴ are bound between e³ and e³.

Example from the John Crerar Library's cards*).

Book notes and card catalogues.

No branch of bibliographical activity is more attractive to the benevolent librarian than book annotation; none is more difficult. The desirability and the importance of book notes has been sufficiently emphasized — perhaps exaggerated. But the difficulties and the problems of book annotation have been either minimized or overlooked altogether.

Among the most prominent of the problems are these: (1) What classes of literature are to be annotated? and how? (2) For whom are the notes in each case to be written? and how? (3) And where are the notes in each case to appear?

It may be that it is only popular literature, or the literature of popular subjects that should be annotated; or, perhaps, all literature is to be annotated, or evaluated, or described with an impartial use of nouns and adjectives. This we need not discuss in this place.

In answer to the second question more must be said. Even if we could be brought to think that the literature to be described was one homogeneous mass to be treated in a single stereotyped fashion, we could never fail to see that it would be used by a very heterogeneous mass of readers, and would decide to adapt the character of our notes to their use. Among the many different classes to whom a book note is useful, two general classes may be noted: first, those who wish to learn the character of a given book, and, second, the great majority who desire information, regarding the literature upon a given subject.

*) **A. L. A. Committee on cataloguing.** Tentative rules for cataloguing incunabula. Public libraries, 27 : 508, 1922.

Among the first class are librarians, and for the most part librarians only. They already have in their custody 500, 5000, or 50,000 books the character of which, so far as the librarian is concerned, has already been determined. In purchasing them, the librarian has decided that they would be useful to the community in which the library is situated.

But while the utility of the books in the librarian's custody has already been determined, that of future purchases has not. Every suggested purchase raises questions which the conscientious librarian must answer in some fashion or other. Has this book been printed under another title or in another edition? and if so, what is the difference? May the same matter in substance be found in another work by the same author or by another author already in the library? and if so, in what respect is it different? These and similar questions arise and must be answered with a view to the symmetrical and wise development of the collection as a whole.

The problem of the average reader is quite different. He is bent upon the acquisition of knowledge, not the collection of books. He has to select from the accumulated literature of years, the librarian from the publications of a single season; he has to satisfy a specific demand, the librarian a general one; he may choose from the books himself, the librarian from the descriptions of the books. The reader has therefore little need or desire for bibliographical information about any particular book. He desires a book, presumably the best, upon a given subject — a compendious biography of Queen Victoria, a popular history of England, an exhaustive description of the Russian empire, etc., etc. These are distinct demands, well-defined and practical; how can they be met more successfully than they are?

The answer to this question is involved in the answer to the third question, as to where the notes in each case are to appear. Certainly librarians should have, and will have in time, a bibliographical periodical to help them in selecting from the mass of current publications the books which may be most useful in their community. And no less certainly every library should publish a bulletin of accessions, with notes, sometimes helpful, sometimes amusing. But should notes which are of use in these periodicals be clipped and pasted on catalogue cards? Should the note on Morley's Gladstone, printed in the bulletin, be entered under Morley in the card catalogue, or under Gladstone, or under both? I am disposed to believe that it should be entered under neither. I would not enter

it under Morley, partly because it would seldom be seen there, and partly because when it was seen it would be as likely to hinder or mislead the reader as to help him — at any rate, as soon as the note became antiquated. If I examine the catalogue to get the shelfmark for this book I want to get it as quickly as possible; I do not want to find some one in my way reading book notes; and when I find the card I want simply the shelfmark; all else is twittering. Moreover, the note which was most helpful at the time when the book was published, the note which described the book as the most exhaustive or authoritative work upon the subject, may become misleading because of the appearance of some more exhaustive or authoritative work.

From the administrative point of view the reasons for discarding a poor note and securing a good one, for discouraging the transfer of the librarian's critical efforts from the bulletin to the catalogue, and for emphasizing among bibliographers the distinction between the author note and the subject note are even more cogent. A card catalogue is useful in inverse ratio to its size. The lengthening of the entry and the multiplication of entries are therefore to be avoided as much as possible. An author entry full enough to identify a particular book, a subject entry or guide card full enough to point out the best accessible literature on a given subject, are for the most part sufficient. The student desires, besides a well classified library and access to the shelves, an author catalogue only. This need is met by every well-organized reference library. The general reader, on the other hand, — and we are all general readers in so far as fate will permit — the general reader, whom it is the object of the circulating library to serve, wants a subject catalogue, not a complete index to a collection, the antiquated books and all, but, as a rule, few references, and those upon the most popular subjects only; in other words, a guide to the best that the library has on this subject or on that.

Is there not some way in which this demand may be satisfied, and our bibliographical apparatus at the same time rendered less cumbersome? Would not a best book card, perhaps, serve this purpose? — one on each of the most popular subjects, prepared by competent authorities, with notes such as made famous the Boston Public Library catalogue of books in the classes of history, biography, and travel in 1873. Such a card might, in small circulating libraries and in branch libraries at least, take the place of the 10 or 20 or more cards already filed; in other libraries it might be added to the

cards already filed in the catalogue. In any case the essential entry might be provided by co-operation, while additional entries remained a matter of local option.

This device would not enable us to get all our books read by everybody — if that should be our ambition — and it would increase the need for duplicates. It might, perhaps, diminish the sum total of books in circulation, but, on the other hand, it would encourage the reading of the books that were in circulation, and in the long run help us to secure the best reading for the largest number at the least cost *).

Subject Headings.

Miss Mary E. Hyde, associate professor of library science at Simmons College, opened the discussion with a careful survey of the history of the publishing of both lists of subject headings.

As a basis for comparing the A. L. A. List and the Library of Congress Subject Headings, Miss Hyde used three tests of the value of a list in relation to its use in a given library.

(1) The present scope of the list as compared with the present and prospective needs of the library. As the Library of Congress receives all American copyrighted books as well as many others, an abridged L. C. list would cover all headings likely to be needed in medium sized libraries.

(2) The provisions made by the publisher of the list for keeping it up-to-date. The A. L. A. publishes in the *Booklist* the headings needed for the books listed in that publication, but has no other way of keeping its list supplemented. This is a very serious lack, for the *Booklist* naturally does not contain books on all new subjects. The A. L. A. list at present dates back to 1911, no supplement having been issued in the meantime. The Library of Congress issues annual supplements to its Subject Headings, with briefer lists at shorter intervals; and as each annual supplement is of a cumulative nature, the list is kept up-to-date very satisfactorily. In addition to these supplements, subscribers to L. C. cards find indicated on the printed cards for their new books the headings used for those books in

*) **Johnston, W. Dawson.** Book notes and card catalogues. *Library journal*, 29 : 420-21, 1904.

Dr. Johnston was European representative of the Library of Congress.

the Library of Congress catalogue — a great help in case of very recent books on subjects too new to have been included in any printed supplement to any list. To be sure, users of the A. L. A. list also have the advantage of seeing the headings noted on the L. C. cards; but they do not receive the same benefit from these headings, for there are many small, tormenting differences in the headings used in the two lists, and L. C. headings often do not fit easily among A. L. A. headings.

(3) The ease with which the list can be used. The A. L. A. list has the very marked advantage of the "refer from" column. The L. C. Subject Headings contains much more in the way of explanations as to how to apply the headings than does the A. L. A. list. The L. C. list also contains the L. C. class numbers. These numbers are of great assistance to cataloguers who have the L. C. classification schedules at hand. I should like to see the next list issued by the A. L. A. contain the Decimal Classification numbers and also many of the explanations printed in the L. C. list. If the next list is an abridged L. C. list, I should want it, of course, to contain a "refer from" column.

Some successful man of affairs has said recently that he has learned by experience that it is never wise to depart from principle for the sake of expediency. The remark seems to be particularly applicable to the matter we are discussing.

The makers of both the A. L. A. and L. C. lists naturally used the chapter on subject headings in Cutter's Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue as their guide in matters of fundamental principle. Unquestionably "the most approved usages" in American libraries to day are in line with those principles. What are they? They can be summarized roughly in some such blanket rule as this: Enter each book under its specific subject, using one heading, or more than one, if necessary to cover the content of the book; bring out analytics as necessary; in connection with each heading used, make *see* references from alternative but rejected terms and from alternative but rejected wordings of headings; make *see also* references from more general subject headings and from headings for other closely related subjects, in connection with which the subject of the book in hand is likely to prove of interest; but do not refer from more specific subjects. I have discussed this matter with many expert cataloguers and have examined a large number of catalogues with this point in mind, and as a result have no doubt that this represents "the most approved usage".

To illustrate certain differences in the two lists let us consider the treatment of books on any given language, e. g., the English language or the German language. The Library of Congress follows a consistent plan. Anyone looking up a topic in connection with either language can find the same topic in connection with the other language entered under an analogous heading, and for still any other language the same treatment will be found. The user of the catalogue thus gets the benefit of his previous experience with the catalogue. The A. L. A. list treats all languages but the English language in an analogous manner; but makes an exception of the English language, trying in each case to choose for heading just the term, or phrase under which it is thought probable the average reader would most likely look when first approaching the catalogue. The idea is fine — one does want, so far as it is humanly possible, to make the approach to recorded matter as swift and sure as may be. But following this plan makes necessary all sorts of unusual references; the reader cannot make use of his experience in dealing with analogous topics, and it certainly seems that the loss is greater than the gain. The principle of entering analogous subjects or analogous treatment of matter so far as possible under analogous headings has been violated for the sake of expediency. Has it proved wise? Having seen the confusion such a course causes to students of cataloguing I feel that it certainly was not a wise decision.

Next let us take up the question of introducing *see also* references from specific to general. This matter is far more vital than that just touched upon. The L. C. list follows, obviously, the practice in the L. C. catalog. References from specific to general are made only very occasionally, just when obviously necessary, e. g., Flowers, *see also* Botany. The A. L. A. list is filled with references of this type as a matter of deliberate policy. This is shown in the following statement copied from the introduction to the third edition of the A. L. A. list: 'The best material on a specific subject is often found in a work upon a larger subject, so general in its nature that it is not advisable to analyze it. References are, therefore, made from the specific to the general in cases where most general works can be expected to contain material on the specific subject.' The point of view which led to this decision is very easily understandable when we consider that the list was compiled without all the headings and references being put to the test in a real catalogue. There lies behind the decision the great desire to be helpful in making readily available all material on any relatively narrow subject, evidently

with the realization that specific works on some of these narrow subjects may be few in number and possibly, tho such texts exist, may not be in the library's book collection. When one thinks about this, theoretically, the course seems to be reasonable, but library science has developed by the testing of various theories in practice, and discarding theories which do not work out happily in practice. This theory when adopted as a general working principle, does not work satisfactorily. Its incorporation in the A. L. A. list of subject headings makes that tool a very difficult one to use in connection with the teaching of subject headings. No one wants to criticise destructively a piece of fine work so monumental as the A. L. A. list; but unless we are honest enough to criticise in vital cases, how is library science to develop? I say, therefore, boldly, but sympathetically, that the systematic inclusion of *see also* references from specific to general in the A. L. A. list is a mistake; that the next edition should not contain them as a matter of general policy; that only those should be retained that are justified by rules to be followed in cataloguing in all libraries; and that the use of such references to meet special conditions in individual libraries should be left to the judgment of individual cataloguers in charge of the catalogues of such libraries, — not suggested in the "refer from" column. The matter might be discussed at some length in the introduction. This does not seem to be an opportune time to discuss what conditions call for such references; but I might suggest that they are met oftener in small than in medium-sized libraries*).

The Subject Catalogue.

Every one admits that a large library must have an author catalogue, but there are some students, scholars, and librarians who are more or less doubtful about the relative importance of a subject catalogue, and as to whether it would not be wiser to use the money which such a catalogue costs in employing experts in the different departments of the library to guide and instruct readers, or in purchasing more books. In favor of this view it is urged that the great majority of readers do not want a subject catalogue, and will not use it if they can help it. They want to go directly to the

*) Boston catalogers discuss subject headings. *Library journal*, 50: 493-94, 1925.

Miss **Hyde** who led the discussion is professor of library science in Simmon College.

shelves, or else that the attending librarian shall tell them whether a certain book is in the library, or what is the best edition of a certain book, or what are best books on a certain subject, and become impatient when they are requested to examine the catalogue and fill out order slips for the books selected.

So far as the New York Public Library is concerned this statement is not correct for ninety per cent. of the readers, but it is true that a considerable number of the casual or occasional who come to a library for information on some specific point, do not know how to use a catalogue . . .

It is also said that the person who is making an original research upon the history of some particular place, period, theory, method, or invention, has little use for the ordinary subject catalogue, because the data he wants are for the most part contained in single chapters, or essays, or periodical or newspaper articles, to which the titles of the books or periodicals give him either no guidance or very little. His ideal library is one in which he can go to the shelves and search for himself, and can also go to one to the librarians and ask him "What are the latest statistics about the birth rate in different countries as compared with the birth rate in Georgia?" or, "What were the ceremonies at the coronation of Louis Napoleon?" . . . In other words he wants his bibliography peptonized, and given to him condensed.

It would be perfectly possible to organize a library staff which should contain persons capable of answering at least nine-tenths of all questions of this kind in general history, early American history, Oriental history, Chemistry, Physics, Engineering, Music, Maps, etc., etc., after they had made themselves familiar with the resources of the library, each in his own department. But would their employment do away with the need for a subject catalogue? I think not — in fact most of these experts, if in a large library, would desire a subject catalogue and would make one for their own use — but even if they did not, they will occasionally be absent, and will sometimes die, and the substitute, or new professor, will not be able to fill the place for a considerable period of time.

The preparation of author and subject cards, and the filing them in alphabetical order in the public catalogue, does not by any means complete the proper preparation of this catalogue, and if no more is done the result will often be very unsatisfactory . . .

. . . The final revision, with the preparation of guide cards and references, can only be done properly by one person, and up to the

present that person has had little time to give to this part of her work. The result is that if the inquirer is looking for references to the history of education in Pennsylvania, he may find a thousand or more cards under the heading "Education (History of)" but not classified further. There is also the possibility that half a dozen cards have gone in under "Pennsylvania, Education in" ...

The question, "What shall be done in the way of analytical work?" is one that is always under discussion in the catalogue department. The numerous general and special encyclopedias, year-books, directories, almanacs, etc., which are essential in the reference department of a large library often contain special articles, statistical tables, etc., which are worth an index card, but the general rule is to rely on those in charge at the reader's desk to point out these sources of information. So long as there are a considerable number of books and pamphlets on hand uncatalogued the decision usually is to defer analytical card making until the separate works have been catalogued, if for no other reason than to prevent the addition of duplicates ...

Another series of questions relates to cross-references, and especially as to when a cross-reference is to be used in place of duplicating a card for two subjects.

A book on the condition of the agricultural and commercial interests of the United States might properly be referred to under both Agriculture and Commerce, and also, perhaps, still more properly, under Free Trade, but it will usually be sufficient to catalogue it under one subject only, relying on cross-references from the others.

The subdivision of labor which is necessary in a large library gives to some extent the usual unsatisfactory result of such subdivision in that most members of the staff become thoroughly familiar with only a part of the work. Those engaged at the reader's desk rely more on their knowledge of the books than on the catalogue, to which they resort only in case of necessity, and require some time to become familiar with it. They see all the new books as they go through to the shelves, but not all the old ones. On the other hand those who assign subject headings to the cards are not always as familiar with the form in which reader's queries are put as they should be. We try to remedy this by having the classifiers take turns at the reader's desk, and by carefully noting the complaints of readers about the catalogue, and trying to do away with the

causes for such complaints, and no doubt with time many of the difficulties will be minimized or entirely removed.

The most important objection to an alphabetical index catalogue such as described, is, that it often separates widely the lists pertaining to closely allied subjects, as for example, food, butter, cookery, milk, etc., and while the guide cards for the general subjects will give references to other subjects for details, the student who wishes to find all that the library contains on some rather general subject, would prefer to have the catalogue arranged by classes as far as possible.

This objection will be obviated to some extent by the shelf lists which will be prepared in accordance with the new classification, and which will be available for the use of readers, but these shelf lists will not be made until we move into the new building, and the books now divided between Astor and Lenox buildings can be arranged together. Moreover a shelf list can never take the place of a subject list, because for every subject there are important pamphlets and articles in transactions and periodicals to which the shelf list gives no clue.

One of the questions which arises in the arrangement of the subject cards in a large catalogue like this, is, as to whether in certain subjects, and especially in historical groups, the arrangement should be chronological or alphabetical. The alphabetical arrangement is more convenient for the librarian in checking off lists of books on a certain subject in order to see what the library has, or has not, and it is also usually preferred by the casual reader, who is more accustomed to it, while the chronological order is preferred by the systematical student, and by the reader who wishes to refer to the latest work, or to the oldest work, with the least possible delay.

In conclusion I would say that twenty-five years ago I held much more definite and positive opinions as to how an index catalogue like that of the New York Public Library should be arranged than I do at present *).

*) **Billings, John S.** The card catalogue of a great public library. *Library journal*, 26 : 377-83.

Dr. Billings was formerly librarian of the New York Public Library.

b) PAMPHLETS.

Arranging pamphlets.

The arrangement of pamphlets is a difficult matter to decide. If they are kept separate from the books, there is the inconvenience of location to be considered, the difficulty of learning the entire resources of the library on any subject. But if they are kept with the books in the same class, there is the untidy appearance of the shelves to be considered, for whoever knew a pamphlet to stay where it was placed? They are always half off the shelf, or on the floor, or jammed in behind or under the books. This does not tend, by the way, to improve the condition of the pamphlets. Worse than these bad habits is the trick that thin, small pamphlets have of slipping in between the pages of some book, while they remain securely hidden from the searcher's eye until chance discovers their lurking place.

Probably every librarian has his own ideas about the most practical way of arranging pamphlets. At the Maine State Library, it has always been the custom to catalogue all pamphlets, and the following plans of arrangement have been tried.

By the first method the pamphlets were catalogued and placed on the shelves with the books. In the second place the experiment was tried of binding pamphlets together just as they came. The resulting miscellaneous volumes were given the Dewey number for General essays, with the addition of the letters A, B, C, etc., to distinguish separate volumes. This plan was not carried very far, on account of the great expense of binding. By the third plan of arrangement, the pamphlets were put into boxes or pamphlet cases as they are called. These cases are about the size of an ordinary octavo volume and will contain from three or four to a dozen pamphlets, according to thickness. There are sometimes quarto pamphlets, which have to be forced reluctantly into the case, but it does not seem best to have the cases larger. These pamphlet cases were kept together on separate shelves and numbered in regular order as they were filed. The pamphlets were catalogued like books, but instead of being given the Dewey number and Cutter author-mark,

there was written on the card, for instance, P. C. 16-5, meaning the fifth pamphlet put into the sixteenth pamphlet case. The inconvenience of this plan — of having the pamphlets on any subject so far from books in the same class — soon became apparent, and the present plan of arrangement was decided upon.

The pamphlet cases, containing pamphlets on any subject, are now kept on the shelf with the books in the same class, but they are put after all the books having that class number. For example, all the pamphlets numbered 973 are put into cases numbered 973-P.C., 973-P.C.2., 973-P.C.3 ... and so on, and come after the books numbered 973.9 — and just before those numbered 974. Each pamphlet, however, has its full Dewey number and Cutter author-mark, written in pencil in the upper-left-hand corner of the cover, with the number of the pamphlet case in addition, and in ink on the Label affixed to the lower left-hand corner. For example, 973.77 — H86 P.C.3. — This is done because it was thought that some future librarian might wish to distribute the pamphlets in strict accordance with the decimal classification, and it would then be very convenient to find the pamphlets all minutely classified. The Dewey number and author mark are written in the usual place on the catalogue card, and a few lines below, the letters P. C. or P. C. 2, as the case may be are added.

There is one difficulty in this way of arranging pamphlets, and that is to decide when a pamphlet is a pamphlet and when it is not a pamphlet, but a paper-covered book. No satisfactory definition of a pamphlet has yet been evolved at the state library. The librarian gave us the definition that a pamphlet is a pamphlet if it won't stand up, but that a pamphlet ceases to be a pamphlet when it will stand alone. In practice, however, this rule does not work well. Any suggestions for a good, working definition will be gratefully received. We have found it best to do what is most convenient in each particular case. If there is a series of campaign documents, for instance, of which part of the numbers are bound and part are in pamphlet form, it seems best to keep them together in chronological order, instead of taking out the pamphlets, and putting them into cases after all the books in the series.

To summarize, the advantages of this plan of arrangement for pamphlets over other plans that have been tried are: .

- 1) Neater appearance of the shelves,
- 2) Better preservation of the pamphlets.

3) Greater convenience of reference in ascertaining the resources of the library on any subject*).

Filing pamphlets.

Visitors to the coming meeting of the A. L. A. may be interested in the way the Public Library of the District of Columbia cares for pamphlets, clippings from magazines, and newspapers. As in other libraries, pamphlets had been coming to the library for years in large numbers and most of them were relegated to the waste basket, as they could not be put through the regular course of cataloguing, for want of time and money. A few found their way to the reference room, where the value of this ephemeral literature was impressed on the minds of the reference staff, particularly in response to the demand for help in high school debates. Much of the material was not found to be of sufficient importance to be regularly catalogued. Besides this we wanted to use it at once, and could not wait for its regular course through the accession and catalogue department. The object to be attained was to make it immediately available in the reference room, and to call attention of the public and also of the staff to the fact that we have such material on given subjects.

The clippings and pamphlets are put in tough manila envelopes, without flaps, 9½ by 11½ inches, and put into a vertical file in a room adjoining the reference room. When an envelope is full it is withdrawn, put into pamphlet box with drop cover, size 5 by 10 by 15 inches, and a guide card inserted in the file, "See shelves", in the same room, where about fifty of these boxes now stand. The envelopes and boxes, arranged alphabetically, are thus self-indexing.

If the subject matter is new in this file, it is considered carefully and a possible subject heading is suggested to the head cataloguer, who makes a decision in accord with the subject work of the catalogue. Some times the subject is so new that it has not yet appeared in the catalogue, which has to be gone over for books on related subjects, and the new subjects are brought out analytic or main subject entry.

*) **Cochrane, J. M.** Arranging pamphlets. *Public Libraries*, 14: 254-55, 1909.
Miss **Cochrane** is head cataloguer at the Maine State Library.

When the subject is decided on, it is written on the pamphlet and typewritten in red on top of a multigraphed card which reads, "For pamphlet material and clippings on this subject consult assistant in reference room".

The entry thus made, and a copy filed in the official and also in the public catalogue at the end of all other entries on the subject, may represent one item or twenty or forty or more, as in the case of woman suffrage or other subjects much debated by school boys and girls.

In some cases the pamphlet is valuable, both on account of the subject and because the author is an authority on that subject. If the Library of Congress has catalogued the pamphlet, its cards are ordered, for both subject and author, and put in official and public catalogue. These cards are stamped, "Pamphlet collection — consult assistant in reference room".

About twelve hundred subjects are represented in this file, covering a wide range of interests, chiefly sociological.

Of the use of these pamphlets in the reference room no account has been kept, but they are frequently requested for reference use. During the year July, 1912 — June, 1913, 885 pamphlets were circulated, to school boys and girls, for debate work chiefly; to social workers, and to women's clubs.

For the past two years efforts have been made to collect pamphlets, monographs, leaflets, booklets, in fact any publications along sociological lines. These embrace things issued by the Rockefeller Foundation, the Russell Sage Foundation, the associations for and against woman suffrage, the Carnegie Foundation, the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, the National Vigilance Committee, the World Peace Foundation, New York Milk Commission, special reports of police and health departments of various cities, American Baptist Publication Society, and American Unitarian Association publications on social work in the church, etc.

Reprints from the *Congressional Record*, House and Senate documents, and a variety of government documents are not catalogued as complete files, but are entered directly under subjects, and made available immediately.

The New York *Times* is regularly clipped for sociological articles, and back numbers of magazines that have circulated from the library are also taken apart and pages or sections added to these files.

In many cases nothing can be furnished really new and up-to-date but from this collection. In other cases, it has added a vital touch to the other resources of the library and it is instantly available — no getting of call numbers or calling for pages.

Multigraphed cards to indicate uncatalogued material in the catalogue have been used for several years for the minor bibliographies. The larger lists, bound volumes, and Library of Congress bibliographies are regularly catalogued. Our own typewritten lists, typewritten lists from the Bureau of Education, and advance lists from the Library of Congress, as well as those clipped from library bulletins all over the country, or from separate lists issued by libraries, clipped from the *Independent*, etc., are filed alphabetically under subject. The subject is written at the top of a multigraphed card reading, "For further references on this subject consult assistant in reference room".

The file of minor bibliographies has been growing for eight years, and has justified itself many times. There are over six hundred subjects represented, of very diverse sorts, from lists on writers of the day — magazines or publishers' booklets — to lists on historical subjects, or apperception, or Zuni Indians. Lists, pamphlets, and clippings on business, agricultural, and technical subjects are treated in a similar way, and are referred to industrial department instead of to the reference room *).

Vertical file for pamphlets.

We are beginning to realize that much of the live, vital literature of the day is in the form of pamphlets, monographs, bulletins, reports, circulars, etc. It is impossible to list, in this brief article, all the sources of this material. Foremost on the list are the publications of the federal, state, and city governments. Since the war hundreds of organizations have been formed; many of these publish pamphlets, leaflets and circulars ... We need all this material, more or less ephemeral as to form but most vital as to content, to supplement books and bring them up to date ...

Simplicity must be the key-note of any filing system that is

*) **Babbitt, Grace E.** Pamphlets and clippings in reference work. Library journal, 39: 253-55, 1914.

Miss **Babbitt** was formerly head of the reference department of Washington Public Library.

to fit the needs of the busy librarian. It should be practical and economical not only as to cost of installation but as to cost of maintenance after establishment, and at the same time must be capable of ready expansion.

Many schemes of filing material have been evolved; no one scheme will offer a panacea for all ills. There is a big jump from the scrap-book method to the vertical file but those of experience agree that the vertical file is the simplest as well as the most practical and most economical.

It may be admitted that the classified arrangement for this type of material works satisfactorily in some special, or legislative reference libraries, where there is ample cataloguing assistance, but the simplicity and elasticity of the dictionary plan, which permits more rapid consultation, makes the latter method much better for most libraries. It is, in fact, the natural method, because everybody knows how to use a dictionary or a telephone book. The business world is indebted to librarians for many indexing ideas, but if librarians are to become really efficient, they must also watch the business world for approved business methods. Alphabetic systems of filing are much more used today in the business world than classed or numerical schemes.

In determining the subject heading under which to file an article, it is absolutely essential to be uniform and consistent. Duplicate headings should be avoided; articles relating to one subject should not be distributed. The Readers' Guide furnishes an excellent list of subject headings as this includes all new material and the necessary cross-references . . . The chief value of the vertical file is for quick reference.

The value of clippings will depend upon the selection, the needs of the library, and the care given to them. Obviously no library can afford to collect clippings in large quantities unless they are to be made readily available. They may be gathered from various sources, newspapers, magazines, and worn-out books. It is important that they be dated, and show source from which obtained . . . Any clipping known to be of permanent value may be mounted and filed under its subject. Others of temporary or questionable value may be placed loosely in a vertical file folder, or in a large manila envelope the same size as the folders, marked with the subject heading and filed back of the pamphlets on the same subject. It is not worth while to mount clippings of passing value . . . No material should be kept for the mere sake of keeping.

As soon as it has served its purpose it should be eliminated from the file to make room for newer material.

From the standpoint of economy and efficiency, the long established custom of tying up library funds in bindings, and of shelving such sets, may be questioned, especially in libraries with inadequate book funds. Unused bound volumes for periodicals represent a considerable investment which may not easily be justified. For such libraries the vertical file is a great saving when used to house recent volumes of unbound periodicals. The file may be used indefinitely, as older volumes are shifted to storage files, or pamphlet boxes, in the basement, where they will still be accessible if occasionally needed *).

*) **Ovitz, Delia G. A.** Vertical File in every Library. Pamphlet, published by The H. W. Wilson Co., New York.

Miss **Ovitz** is librarian of the Milwaukee State Normal School.

c) SERIALS AND BOOK INDEXES.

Checking serials.

The plan here outlined follows substantially the system now employed at the University of Illinois Library. The distinguishing characteristic of the system is that periodicals are checked in a series of files, the general basis of classification being the frequency of issue. In this respect it differs radically from the system employed at the Free Library of Philadelphia, as described by Mr. Reinick in the Library Journal of August 1911.

Publications are classed in the following groups:

- (1) Daily papers.
- (2) Weekly and semi-weekly papers.
- (3) Monthly and semi-monthly magazines.
- (4) Quarterlies and irregulars of at least four numbers per year.
- (5) Annuals, semi-annuals, biennials, and irregulars of less frequency than four times a year.
- (6) College and university publications.
- (7) United States publications.

For the checking of daily papers, a large sheet is used, whereon the papers received by the library are alphabetically arranged, the sheet containing a space for paper for each day of the month. In this way it is easy for the assistant to keep track of papers not coming. At the end of the month the record is transferred to a card ruled for each month of the year, so that a yearly record of the receipts may be preserved in a convenient form.

Weekly and semi-weekly papers are checked in on cards of standard size in a separate file. These cards are placed in a tray about six and one-half inches wide, all at the left side of the tray. As checked they are moved to the right side. At the end of the week the assistant writes for the numbers not in, as shown by the cards at the left of the tray. In this way the assistant need not look over any cards unnecessarily. The cards show the catalogue numbers, and these are marked on each paper. After a wait in the reading-room, these publications go to their proper places on the shelves.

Monthly and semi-monthly magazines have a separate file, and are checked in on cards of standard size, ruled for each month of the year. These are also placed in wide trays, and moved over to the right as numbers are checked. At the end of the month, the numbers not in are written for, as shown by the cards at the left of the tray.

The fourth file contains the quarterlies and irregulars of at least four numbers per year, and these are checked in the same way as the monthly magazines, and missing numbers are written for at the end of each quarter.

As will be readily seen, it is very easy to keep the publications in these files up to date. The card in the catalogue has a general entry, as, for instance, *v. 7-date, 1886-date*, which precludes the necessity of checking each number in the catalogue, and there is no delay in sending numbers to the shelves.

Continuations in the fifth class, annuals, biennials, etc., are checked on cards ruled for date of receipt, term covered and volume number in parallel columns. These are filed in trays only as wide as the card, and no attempt is made to change their position as numbers are checked in. This may not be feasible, either, as annual reports, especially of public offices, are frequently issued so long after the end of the year, and irregulars are so capricious in their appearance, that each card needs to be separately inspected to ascertain, by comparison with date of previous issue, when the next issue will be out. This file is simply gone through once a year, and numbers are written for that, in the judgment of the assistant, ought to be in.

This last list lends itself easily to subdivision, and in the University of Illinois library, the paid periodicals in this list are placed in a separate file for the convenience of the order department. In the order files, paid periodicals, gifts and exchanges are all recorded together, the cards showing the origin. All unbound volumes in this class may be sent directly to the shelves, except publications of a monographic character and such others as need special cataloguing. Bound volumes will be accessioned, plated and marked before they go to the shelves.

A question as to the form of the catalogue card here naturally arises. The *v.-date* entry does not seem sufficiently exact. A large library, with a separate document room, would naturally prefer a parenthetical entry, stating what information as to the exact volumes in the library may be had in the document room. A smaller library

may prefer the following system: Make a catalogue card for continuations, with a printed series of dates, past and future. Check on this card all volumes in the library, and add a note on the card, saying, "The library has all those checked". The shelf list may have the same kind of card. Then, as continuations come in, before a series card is replaced in the file, it may be taken to the catalogue and the proper date checked. This may be done for the catalogue cards and the shelf list without removing the cards from the trays. This usage would not be feasible in cases where most specific entries had to be made, and in these cases the cards would have to be removed by checking.

College and university publications have a separate file, largely on account of the temporary value of some of the material. As a number comes in it is checked directly on a catalogue card on which the class number is marked; this number is entered on the pamphlet, and the pamphlet is then sent directly to the shelves. The card is filed in a separate catalogue of college and university material, which is kept in a case convenient to the serial desk. No other entry is made of college and university material, except university studies, and no shelf is kept. The classification will naturally shelve these publications alphabetically by names of institutions, and it is easy to use them without cards being filed in the main catalogue.

University studies and such other college and university material as needs an author card or analyticals in the main catalogue are sent to the cataloguing room when entered. Usually such studies have sub-series numbers. A card is then made for the sub-series in the file, and if the studies of a certain institution are kept together on the shelves, the catalogue number of the sub-series is indicated on the pamphlet. If it is the custom to treat a series of studies purely as separates, no class number is indicated, and the numbers are treated like all other separates after they leave the hands of the serial assistant.

Separates of college and university material are also entered in this file, and if the publications deserve representation in the main catalogue, no number is assigned.

There is an obvious advantage in checking all United States material in one alphabet and having it all checked by the same person, especially in a depository library, where so much of it is received. Nevertheless, there is no reason why the cards should not be filed with the fifth group. The cards for the different series should show the shelf number and the parts be sent directly to the

shelves, except for such volumes as have to be separately represented in the catalogue, and in the case of bound volumes that must first be accessioned, plated and marked.

But after the regular series are disposed of, there remains a great deal of miscellaneous material, especially for a depository library that may seem hard to dispose of, and at the same time keep it available for use. A good way to treat this miscellaneous material is to transfer the series numbers from the invoice of the superintendent of documents to the pamphlets as they are checked off, and arrange them according to that classification in some place convenient to the Congressional set. All publications will in this way be made available without delay, and the classification will in no way interfere with the classification used by the library, nor preclude their later cataloguing and transfer to the regular shelves.

It might appear that this system of checking serials would mean confusion, but such is not the case. The clearness of the records, the ease of keeping the files up to date, and the convenience for reference more than offset any inconvenience from this source. The assistants in charge will have no difficulty whatever in distributing the mail to the proper places. Nor is it necessary to lay out the mail in seven piles before checking, although it is convenient to have five piles; one for daily papers, one for groups two, three and four, one for group five, one for group six, and one for group seven.

In the University of Illinois library, the serial assistants, as well as the library authorities, have a great liking for the system. Nor has this institution experienced any great difficulty in reference to inquiries as to whether certain numbers of a periodical have arrived, for the assistants very quickly develop an acquaintance with names and frequency of issue, and this lesser difficulty is offset by the greater advantage of a file up to date*).

Serial publication.

There seems to be no uniformity of practice regarding the care of serial publications in its relation to the general administration of the library. In some libraries a special department has been

*) **Hodnefield, Jacob.** The checking of serials. *Library journal*, 37 : 349-20.
Mr. **Hodnefield** is assistant librarian of the Minn. Historical Society.

created; in others they are in the charge of the order clerk, the loan clerk, or the assistant in charge of the reading room. In the small library they must, of course, be cared for by some one who has other duties, but in any library of over 100,000 volumes there is, it seems to me, enough detail in the proper supervision of these publications to occupy the entire time of one person. Such officer should be made entirely responsible for the purchase, receipt, and care of all serials. He should see to it that those obtained by gift are received regularly, and that sets are made complete, and finally he should be prepared to do reference work and prepare reading lists on current events.

Wherever possible, periodicals should be ordered through some agent of recognized standing. Better terms can be made, and better service, particularly in the case of foreign periodicals, can be had in this way. Domestic publications should be sent by mail direct to the library. Foreign publications, except in the case of a few weeklies like the *Spectator*, should, however, be collected by the agent at various centers in Europe, shipped by freight to his American office, and sent to the library in weekly packages. The delay, which ought not to be greater than a week, is more than counterbalanced by the facts that the periodicals arrive in better condition and that fewer are lost in transit.

The record of receipt should be kept on cards, 11 by 6½ being a convenient size. The card should show, aside from the title and date of receipt of each number, the call number and state of completeness of the library set, frequency, and in case of weeklies, day of issue, number of issues per volume, and of volumes per year, address of publisher, name of agent through whom ordered, regular price, date of bill, date of expiration of subscription cost, where the title-page and index are to be found, and date when volume was sent to the binder. Such a record answers at a glance, practically, every question likely to be asked regarding the publication or the receipt of any periodical on the list.

Subscriptions should be, wherever possible, conterminous with the fiscal year and should be paid as soon as possible after its opening. Supplemental bills, covering periodicals which appear at regular intervals, single parts, etc., may be rendered monthly.

Aside from the ledger account, kept on the record card, the bills should be entered in detail in the fund book, for which a suggested ruling is: Agent, Date of bill, Title, Date of expiration of subscription, Price.

Where space will permit, the best case for the display and preservation of unbound periodicals seems to me to be one having a top with a double slope, where the current numbers can be arranged, and having a series of drawers below for the reception of unbound numbers. If floor space is more limited, cases of drawers can be arranged about the walls of the room and current numbers of the more generally used periodicals only displayed on tables.

At Columbia we have tried the plan of distributing the current numbers of periodicals of a special nature to the departmental library most likely to use them. We have determined recently, however, that, as soon as a room of sufficient size is available, all the periodicals, with possibly a few exceptions, are to be brought together again. It is quite possible that the present system renders the use of the periodicals more intensive, but it has resulted in absolutely preventing a certain very valuable extensive use.

Every library has in addition to the serial publications, which properly belong to the reading room for periodicals, a large amount of unbound reports, bulletins, and other publications of societies or of governmental offices, which, unless properly indexed, are a source of constant annoyance. I have found that a very satisfactory method of handling these is to tie them in packages, each title by itself, and classify according to the regular system. These packages can be arranged on shelves in any unused corner of the Library. A rough working card catalogue, for the use of the assistant in charge, is placed near them, in which is indicated the call number, title, and serial numbers of the periodical indexed. In the lower left-hand corner, we record what part, if any, of the serial is bound and on the regular shelves. When a volume is made up for binding a line is drawn through the numbers included and the figure in the lower corner is changed.

In addition to this catalogue, the unbound parts are indexed in the main catalogue on a printed card which follows the main entry, if there be one, and which reads, following the title: "The library has the following unbound parts of this periodical which may be obtained by applying at the loan desk". Entries on this card are made in pencil, so that when a volume is bound the cataloguer simply transfers the number from the supplementary to the main card.

As a method of keeping sets of the annual volumes of municipal, state, and other bodies, up to date, a rough card catalogue may be kept indicating simply title and serial number. As volumes come in, their number is added to the card and the card itself

transferred to a second drawer. At the end of the year the cards remaining in the first drawer can be taken out and the missing volumes written for. For this purpose I have a blank form, but I am inclined to believe, however, that it is better economy to write a personal letter.

No definite rule can be established regarding the circulation of unbound material. It is a question that each library must answer for itself.

The following rules are those in force at Columbia:

"Except by special permission from the librarian, no monthly periodical shall be withdrawn from the periodical room within two weeks after its receipt; and no weekly periodical until the next number shall have been received. After the time specified above, periodicals may be withdrawn for a limited time on application to the supervisor of the department".

"The monthly periodicals known as standard or popular may not be withdrawn from the periodical room until the receipt of each succeeding number".

"No periodical may be withdrawn at any time for more than one week"*)).

Book indexes.

There are few writers on the subject of index-making, but to those who have written I am indebted for valuable suggestions which I have adopted in my own system of indexing. In order to set forth this plan clearly, I have thought it proper to state some different ideas of indexing and then to refer briefly to the system which might with advantage be accepted by all indexers of books, a system based on long experience of detailed and technical work.

Broadly used the word index means a guide, anything that shows or directs in any way, such as the arm of a guide post or the hand of a clock; applied to literature it may generally be understood to mean a list of entries representing more or less subject-matter, and indicating where it is to be found. To many minds this statement presents varied ideas; to the librarian it means generally the catalogue, to the careless reader the table of contents

*) **Gerould, James T.** The care of serial publications. Library journal, 25: C 44-45, 1900.
Mr. Gerould is librarian of Princeton University.

of a book, to others it represents a syllabus, digest, summary, register, or calendar. These are all indexes, because in their own proper way they are guides to information, and this is the one purpose of an index. But the form of index to be considered here is that known as a book-index. This may be defined as an analysis of the topics, names of persons, places, etc., treated of or mentioned in a book or series of books, pointing out their exact position in the volume. In this form indexing is the art of discerning and expressing in brief the important point or points of a subject, and presenting these under representative headings arranged in alphabetical order.

The value of indexes was recognized in the earliest days, and it is extraordinary that the indexes of the present are so much on the level of those made centuries ago. It is surprising, too, in these days of eagerness and hurry, that publishers do not realize the value of really good indexes to the books they publish; many books are published without an index, others have indexes so defective that they mar the book entirely. It is, however, certain that the demand for indexes is in some small degree increasing, and not only so, but there is a call for better work.

An indexer has need for high qualifications to enable him to thoroughly handle the work before him. He must first of all be accurate, not only in matters of figures, but in the true representation of the subject matter of the text; he must possess powers of analyzing, have strength of will to reject points that an amateur would insert; he must also be able to place his entries under the most likely headings and to look at the subject in hand from all points of view and eccentricities of mind. These qualities are developed by long perseverance in the practice of indexing.

The indexer of to-day has the task and opportunity of transforming a system that has remained in a rudimentary stage during years of progression. It is his duty to fight against many details in this method, and endeavor to make his productions what they should ever be — clear, ready-of-reference, informing guides.

An index should be made throughout by one person, for indexing is an undertaking in which a number of persons cannot really, and effectively work together. A good index may be produced by this method, but many can never acquire the thoroughness of one who has descended through all its grades and therefore has a practical knowledge of each. It is almost essential to the uniformity of the index that the compiler shall arrange and edit the same.

Indexes in London are compiled in offices where there are many workers, each having a part; this method involves greater labor, and I am sure does not produce the best results. The question of detail in an index depends very largely on the matter in hand; for instance, in the indexing of a daily newspaper and a set of old historic records two entirely different ends are in view. In the first every detail of present day interest must be noted and every subject developed to its fullest extent; in the second we have events from which the spirit of detailed interest has passed; here one must have the faculty of rejecting from the index what is ephemeral while not missing a single point worthy of indexing. This distinction was brought very forcibly to my mind a few years ago when I had the privilege of assisting in compiling the index to the current debates of the British Parliament; and, at the same time, the index to the "Hansard debates" from the time of William IV. to about 1890; in the current debates, to provide for the demands of the Members of Parliament, a very strict analysis was necessary, while in the "Hansard debates" the index, though indeed detailed was not so minute.

Indexing is divided into three distinct parts — the first, compilation; the second, sorting and editing; the third, publication. Compilation is the most important part of the work, and means the actual making of the entries representing the analysis of the text. In starting to index a book it is well to get a general knowledge of the whole before making a single entry; this is important as affecting the final uniformity of the index and also to make the task easier. Having obtained this knowledge of the whole the next step is to treat the matter in detail considering the subject in hand from all points of view and taking out the headings that are likely to be uppermost in the mind of the seeker. An index should never oblige a reader to stop and think under what heading the compiler has been led to register an entry, but every catchword in the text or out of it that in any way represents the subject or part of it must be taken out. Brevity is certainly a thing to be studied, but only after adequate representation has been made. The second thing to be done is to make entries of these headings, for no heading must ever be inserted without some word explaining the cause thereof; the details of the subject must be represented in such words as will convey the exact meaning of the text; it is a part of the work which needs great care and thought, — setting forth the subject in brief and suggestive form, bearing in mind that the index is only the key and not the actual information. Many errors are often made at this stage of the work

resulting in total misrepresentation of the text, thus the oft-quoted instance — "Mr. Justice Best said that he had a great mind to commit the man for trial", was indexed as "Best, Mr. Justice, his great mind".

The second stage, that of sorting and editing, is also of importance, as no index will be satisfactory, however well compiled, unless it be well arranged. First the cards must be sorted and then the whole revised, the indexer comparing critically the entries and different headings with a view to noting agreements or discrepancies. Alphabetical order has superseded the other forms of arrangements, but the numerical or book order of subdivision (or subheadings as properly termed), is still an evil that needs remedying, — alphabetical order being the substitute for the present system. By commencing each subheading on a new line, the required detail among perhaps many others is found at once.

Old System.

Census, speeches on ninth, 443;
bill for taking, 450; literature of, 461; defects in old system, 479; remedies, 490; mortality schedules, 500; ninth census completed, 619; social statistics, 625; amendt, of system, 714.

New System.

Census;
Bill for taking, 450.
Defective system, amendt.
479, 490, 714.
Literature of, 461.
Mortality schedules, 500.
Ninth census:
Completion, 619.
Speeches on, 443.
Social statistics, 625.

The publication stage is important, as it includes the final division of the index, the proof-correcting, and details of indention and continued headings peculiar to the proof of an index. Headings should be printed in marked type, indention being used as a sign of repetition of the same heading in preference to all forms. Wheatley says; "There are few points in which a printer is more likely to go wrong than in the use of this repetition sign; it must only be used for headings exactly similar, the heading being repeated when the second entry differs from the first. Many indexes are full of the most perplexing instances of this detail, leading to great absurdities".

The following are capital illustrations of this error:
Fish, Hamilton.

- Stewing.
- Lead, casting.
- Kindly light.
- United agency,
- States.
- Tube company.

Needless to say only a very slight mention has been made of the multifarious details contained in index-making, details of cross-reference, condensation, arrangement, etc., details of importance and interest to the ardent indexer which decide finally the value of the index. A lengthy account of these details would perchance be out of place here, and indeed their value is not evident to the one who merely reads of them, but are evident to those who work at the art of indexing *).

Some rules to be observed in making indexes.

In the best form of indexes only the key words of the main topics are arranged alphabetically with reference to the index as a whole, those of each sub-topic being arranged under its proper main topic in alphabetical sequence in respect to themselves alone. This subdivision of alphabetic lists may be extended to any degree, which the nature of the topics make desirable. In other words, the element of classification as well as that of alphabetic arrangement, enters into the selection of the key words, which with their proper modifying and qualifying words and page references constitute an index.

Keeping alphabetic arrangement and classification in mind, the first duty of an indexer having a number of topics, reference to which is desirable, is to select for each of these topics a key word which a person wishing to refer to that particular topic is most likely to think of and seek. This is evidently in many cases purely a matter of judgment, and it is the difficulty of judging exactly what word another person will think of in any particular case which makes necessary cross-indexing and cross-reference, which are explained further on. Although the selection of key words is not a process which rules alone can direct, it is evident from what has been said

*) **Cragg, Florence.** Book indexes. Library journal, 27: 819-21, 1902.

that there are certain general rules governing this work which the indexer should strive to follow.

A modifying or qualifying word is seldom if ever suitable for a key word. Such words as Assumed, Best, Character and Nature belong to this class and their uselessness as key words may be seen from a single illustration. Let us assume that the topic to be indexed is a discussion of the character of flange section for plate girders. Now a person desiring to find this discussion would be no more likely to look under "character", than he would under, say, "composition" of flange section, "make-up" of flange section, "design" of flange section, either of which would express the topic indexed quite as accurately as "character". The preceding rule is a very elementary one, but it is violated with surprising frequency in book indexes.

The fundamental idea of a topic is not a criterion for the selection of the key word by which to index it. Instead the thought should be first of the classification under which the word properly comes, and second what position in this classification the topic occupies; that is, whether it belongs to the main topic or is a part of the sub-topic under a main topic. The reason for this is of course that ideas cannot be alphabetized; only words are susceptible to this form of arrangement. Hence the position of any particular idea in an alphabetic list is determined by the sequence of words employed to express that idea; one arrangement of words may place it near the beginning of the alphabet, while another will place it toward the end, and the reader has nothing upon which to base his judgment as to where it will be found. If, however, we first classify the ideas we wish to make reference to into main and subclasses proceeding from the general to the particular, we finally limit the field in which the idea may be located so that it can be found easily and certainly.

It may be accepted as a cardinal rule of good indexing that if a key word is used at all then every possible reference under that head should be included. The force of this rule will be appreciated if we assume that a person wishes to look up all that a book has to say on "swing bridges". His natural course would be to look under "swing spans" in the index and consult every reference he found there. If "uplift" were not included in these references he would miss this important item altogether unless he ran upon it by chance in consulting some of the other topics referred to.

Undoubtedly "uplift" is also a possible key word for this topic, and one which under certain circumstances might be thought

of by reader rather than "swing-spans". It is advisable therefore to cross-index the topic under "uplift" unless it should happen to be divided into several subtopics when the key word "uplift" should be made merely a cross-reference to "swing-spans", under which would be found for the reasons already stated a full detailed index of "uplift", and all its sub-topics. In such a use it will be seen that a cross-reference saves space by avoiding a lengthy repetition. Were there no sub-topics under "uplift" then the cross-reference, instead of cross-indexing, would be a fault because it would necessitate the reader making another search, to find nothing additional but the page number, which might have just as well been given him at once.

The preceding injunctions respecting the necessity of keeping classification of topics in mind in selecting the key words for indexing them do not constitute the whole problem of making an index, but they do embody certain cardinal principles of good indexing whose neglect is the chief reason for many of the poor indexes with which engineering books are provided, and whose careful observance will simplify, very much, the labor of any one who has an index to make *).

What I expect of an index.

First of all I expect to find an index. As a reader of books, that is, a modern reader, one who though he knows that there are some books fit as ever to be chewed and even Fletcherized, also knows that he must taste most of them only and pass on. I look first at those means provided for getting at the core and substance, title page, preface, contents table, chapter headings, running titles and last but not least the index.

Having found my index and found it in its proper place at the end of the volume or the set, I am filled with satisfaction. For this good custom is sometimes violated — sometimes we find the index at the beginning — why I do not know; sometimes, I was about to say in the middle, but that is hardly exact.

Happily, however, in our best books custom and good sense now prevail. Having found the index, I, as a reader, demand of it

*) Some rules to be observed in making indexes. Library journal, 28: 665-66, 1903.
From Engineering News, Aug. 20, 1903.

a friendly service, I expect it to direct me at once and without delay to the matter of which I am in search. I do not come to an index for information. I expect to look further for that and am not to be satisfied with any epitome here of what I want. I come with a name or an idea about which I want to get whatever information the book itself has to furnish. The index takes my point of view, becomes a guide-board, points its finger to my destination.

The greatest service my friend the index can do me is to send me quickly on my way. The sooner I can get away from this my friend the more I love him. His great merit then is that he does not delay me. This merit the index achieves first by being a *single* and *only* index. I am delayed if I have to look through several indexes, — of places, of persons, of events, etc., or even if I have only to look *at* them. I want to find *one* alphabet in which to locate my word. If I have to stop and think whether that word is a name or a place or an event, whether it is ancient or modern, common or proper, English or Latin, Scriptural or classical, I lose that amount of time. It is just at this point that so many books fail: they make several indexes instead of combining them all into one. Here is one of the chief defects of certain books of reference that they multiply alphabetical lists, and force the reader to consult half a score of them before he locates the word. This fault comes from the failure of the index to take the reader's point of view. For this reason the author of a book is not generally a good indexer of it. On the other hand, the professional indexer is too apt to fall into methods of classification and tabulation, unless he is on his guard. The reader doesn't classify, and if he did, his classification would probably be different from the indexer's.

When a work consists of several volumes I expect a general index to the whole work. Usually I find it. The vicious plan of separate indexes to separate volumes is however still pursued in some cases. A recent instance is Ferrero's "Greatness and decline of Rome" (5 Vols.).

I have found one, however, which if not quite so confusing is likely to cause still greater loss of time to the consulter. It is the "History of the Town of Shirley, Mass". There is an index of subjects and an index of names. To say nothing of the index of subjects, the index of names omits (and so states) three tabulations of names given in the body of the history; is itself divided into three parts, viz., names in Parts I and II, names in Part III, and names in the Appendix. Thus we have six alphabets to consult. Such an

index is a stumbling block over which it is almost impossible to pass. But there is another sort of index which instead of wasting my time to no purpose wastes it agreeably and beguiles me to linger in pleasant places. It is the index which is learned, systematized and full, which *tells* you what you want to know rather than directs you to the place where you can find it. I expect an index not to be interesting, rather to be dry. The drier it is, the better I like it, the sooner I get away from it. I may be so entertained by an index as to be disappointed when I come to the passages in the book itself. This completer form of index is expensive and unnecessary.

The discussion suggests the two remaining qualities which the reader looks for in an index. One of them is accuracy, especially in identity of persons mentioned. Full names should be given; titles help to distinguish; dates of birth and death merely are the best means of fixing a person. The index is the place to establish this identity and distinguish individuals of the same name. Most indexes are good in this respect . . . The remaining quality the reader expects to find in an index is fullness—fullness not in the sense of explicitness, but in the sense of many and complete references. Let the form of the reference be brief and the number of references many and inclusive. Here good work means the opposite of its usual qualities . . . Very little about any one title, but titles enough to include everything in the book. Index-makers will still use their judgment; means and space and time will still limit the scope of the index; but nevertheless in so far as anything is omitted an index falls short of giving satisfaction, for this thing omitted because it seemed small or unimportant may to another person or at a later date be the only thing wanted in the whole book.

Into the technique of index-making and index-printing I will not enter. I have simply tried to make clear from a reader's point of view what qualities a good index ought to have—unity, brevity, exactness, fullness*).

*) **Brooks, Arthur A.** What I expect of an index. *Library journal*, 35: 51-55, 1910.

BOOK SELECTION AND PURCHASE.

The needs of a community and the kind of a library are the first guides in selecting books; and the amount of the book fund determines the rapidity and the order in which they may be purchased. For such work the librarian must give some attention to the kinds of books being issued by the various publishing houses, — their character and scope, — to evaluations and criticisms as set forth in periodicals, and to selected lists and publications cited as references. For effective work he must be provided with the publications listing the books, from year to year, in the different countries. If these are not available then he must keep a record of such works, as they come to his attention, which, he thinks are of most importance for his library, together with name of publisher and price. Then also the catalogues of secondhand dealers should be examined for desirable "out-of-print" works, and for publications offered at reduced prices.

Books may be purchased either from some one of the large jobbing houses or directly from the publisher. The advantages of placing the order with the jobber are that he will secure the books from the different publishers, assemble and forward them in large consignments, by freight or express as desired, and thus reduce the cost of transportation. There is not much difference in the prices quoted by large jobbing houses and those by publishers.

A. SELECTING BOOKS.

Should libraries buy the best books or the best books that people will read?

The question answers itself; there is no real opposition between its parts. Of course, we are to buy the best books, and if we have limited funds we can buy no others, or else we shall not get all of the best. But equally of course, this means the best books for the particular library in question, and that is the same as the best books that its people will use; for an unused book is not even good. Not

the best books for the librarian, nor for the book committee, nor for the "self-elected committee outside of the library", nor for the shelves (to keep them warm by never leaving them); but the best books to satisfy the just demands of our clients for amusement and knowledge and mental stimulus and spiritual inspiration. The library should be a practical thing to be used, not an ideal to be admired.

Mr. Edmund Gosse in his "Century of English literature" in the New York *Evening Post* of Jan. 12, speaking of lyric poetry of the 19th century, well says: "The poetry is to be judged, not by the number of persons who have appreciated it — for those have often been few — but by the force, skill, and variety of the poets themselves. That is to say, time soon eliminates the commercial element of success, and one fit reader overweighs a million unfit... Mr. Percy B. Shelley and Miss Jane Porter, for instance, attempted to address the English public at the same moment. It is no exaggeration to say that the lady possessed ten thousand admirers for every one that listened to the gentleman. The instance is not an unfair one, because the authoress of "Thaddeus of Warsaw" was not one of the worst, but one of the best deciduous novelists of her time. Yet her romantic prose is forgotten, and Shelley's verse is as indestructible as diamonds".

"One fit reader", he says, "overweighs a million of unfit". Is it so? Yes, from the point of view of the literary critic and of the literary historian and of posterity, but not from the point of view of the librarian. The whole history of libraries in the past century may almost be condensed into one sentence: They *were* the libraries of the one fit reader; they *are* the libraries of the million unfit as well as the one fit. The librarian will buy the novels of the Miss Jane Porter of to-day for the ten thousand, and the poems of the Shelley of to-day — if he can find him — for the one. He will buy the "David Harums" and the "Richard Carvels" for the first class and, shall we say, provisionally, the Stephen Phillips, the Rostands, for the other.

When you have a perfect people you can afford to have only perfect books, if there are such things; perhaps there will be then. When you have a homogeneous public you can hope to have a stock of books exactly fitted to them all, and no book shall be unfitted to any one of them. But so long as there is a public of every diversity of mental capacity, previous education, habits of thought, taste, ideals, you must, if you are to give them satisfaction or do them any

good, provide many books which will suit and benefit some and will do no good, perhaps in some cases may do harm, to others. It is inevitable. There is no escape from this fundamental difficulty. The poor in intellect, the poor in taste, the poor in association, are always with us. The strong in intellect, the daring in thought, the flexible in spirit, the exquisite in taste, are only sometimes with us. We must manage somehow to provide for them both.

I think many most excellent persons do not really enter into the state of mind of those who are at a stage of culture or mental ability or aesthetic taste which they have passed beyond. If they could, they would know that there are men of a certain rigidity of mind to whom a book which is two degrees above them is as much a sealed book as if written in Chinese. Sometimes it need not even be above a man to be lost to him. A book on his level, if it be a little aside from his ordinary range, is as if it did not exist, is unreadable. A man came into our library repeatedly and asked for Mrs. Southworth's novels. We had only two or three, and when none of them was in he would go away without taking anything. The attendant tried to get him to borrow something a little better, but without success. Then she recommended some of the same sort, Mrs. Mary J. Holmes and the like; but he would have none of them. "Why don't you get some more of Mrs. Southworth's?" he burst out; "they are splendid!" Those novels were just suited to his capacity, "the best he would read", "the best" for him. And we shall give them to him. We are even getting more of them at his request. But I do not yet despair of introducing at least a little variety into his diet.

Everybody knows that in a reference library many more books have to be bought than are at any one time in process of consultation. So in a reading library, it is necessary to get many works which are good for only a portion of the readers. We are continually talking of "the public", as if there were one public, a homogeneous body with one set of likes and dislikes, similar associations, the same previous reading. We even complain that the progress of civilization is rendering everything detestably uniform, that there is no local color, no individuality. But let any one in an agricultural, manufacturing, mercantile, and college town stand for a day at the delivery desk, and he will find that there is quite as much diversity of demand as he can deal with.

Once upon a time at a concert the occupant of the next seat to me happened to be a young lady with whom I was slightly

acquainted. A singer was singing with such a metallic voice, such faulty enunciation and absence of feeling that I was saying to myself all through, "This is certainly as bad as they make them". Pardon the slang; it shows to what a state of mind I was reduced. Finally when she ended some complicated vocalization with the usual shrill shriek, and I was about to express my opinion the young lady exclaimed with evident sincerity. "Wasn't that beautiful!" Since then I have been very careful not to assume that my dislike measures the appreciation or the enjoyment of the world.

For, after all, "best", like many other words, is relative. A year or two ago a certain librarian sent out circulars to a score of other librarians asking each to furnish a list of the ten best books. I wrote back asking for definitions — Best in what? in style? in interest? in instructiveness? in suggestiveness? in power? Best for whom? for the ignorant? for children? for college graduates? for the retired scholar? for the people in general? He replied, Best for you. Evidently it will not do for any book-selector to take the definition of "best" as his absolute guide. Not to be disobliging I sent him a list of the ten (or twenty) books that, so far as I could tell, had most influenced me. I wasn't quite prepared to call them the best books. One of them was, I think, Carlyle's "Sartor resartus", that had happened to fall into my hands just at the psychological moment, just when I was ready for it. It opened my eyes to a whole new world of thought and expression. I believe I owe a great deal to it. And yet I can imagine it being taken up by some one not prepared for it to whom it would say absolutely nothing, and by some one else who has passed by its stage to whom it would seem empty and pretentious. Probably something like this might be said of every one of the books on my list and on all the other lists of best books, at least in respect of many readers not being ready for them.

A high school teacher said lately. "You would be surprised to see how low the capacity of many of the boys is. Give them Sir Walter Scott, they cannot read him. They do not know what he is talking about". We librarians have to deal with whole bodies of readers of that quality. We must provide them with something which they can read and understand.

Select your library, then, as Shakespeare wrote his plays, the highest poetry, the deepest tragedy side by side with the comic and the vulgar. Do not make the regularity, balance of parts, dignity of expression, of the French classic drama your model or you will

have only a *succès d'estime*. Imitate a Gothic cathedral. Do not fancy that libraries can be Grecian temples, made by rule, all just alike wherever they are, perfect in form, suited to one limited use. To sum up, what I have been trying to show is the great diversity in very many respects of those who come to the library, the consequent diversity of the best each can read, the necessity of providing many different kinds, qualities, degrees of good books, the impossibility of limiting one's choice to any one degree of good, lest it should be too high for some and too low for others.

This doctrine is discouraging. It is of a piece with the proverb that there is no royal road to learning. There is no royal road to the selection of a library. There are no "best books". "Each in its place is best". There are no books which can truly be called "the only good books". There are very many desirable books of very varying degrees of literary — and other — merit, which must be provided to suit, I do not say the tastes, but the needs of the public: and the library so made is not going to be at all a library of standard books or an ideal library, or in the judgment of most people, a well-selected library. But it may nevertheless be a very useful and a very educational library.

It is always possible, given time and patience enough to drive out evil by good, the lower by the higher. It is not so much exclusion of the inferior as inclusion of the attractive superior that should be our aim. The question proposed to us was skilfully worded, "the best that people will read", not "the best that they *do* read". People improve. They are not always averse to, in fact they often desire — the young usually desire — to read what is usually above them, if it is not too unintelligible, and if it is not forced upon them. The mere presence of the books-just-beyond-them in the library is sure to lead some of them sometimes to attempt these and so to move up to a little higher plane. And the library is sure to have the books that are just a little better than any of its readers if it proceeds on the principle of getting what suits each, which, of course, will be a little above those that suit each lower grade.

The natural inclination to better one's self must be gently and unobtrusively assisted. Here, as in all *pastoral* work, success from sympathy. He can best minister to another's wants who can put himself into another's place, enter into his mind, and so feel those wants himself. As the librarian will do injustice to the scholar unless he has himself felt the sacred thirst for knowledge; as he will not, indeed, cannot supply the demand for the beautiful unless

he has himself felt the artistic thrill, so he will fail in properly providing for many of his people unless he remembers the gradual opening of his own mind or is able by imagination to recreate his forgotten state of ignorance and inability*).

Book values.

Buying in the business world has attained quite a degree of efficiency. Buying experts say that the whole sum and substance of competence in buying is to know values, and therefore a buyer must know:

- 1) Intrinsic worth.
- 2) Time worth.
- 3) Local worth.
- 4) Process and cost of production.
- 5) The selling market.
- 6) The buying market.

These terse phrases used in the business world may be shifted very easily to apply to a librarian's problems in book buying.

There are certain goods that one never makes a mistake in buying all wool and a yard wide, honestly made, of good material. They have been sold for years and always given satisfaction. They have Intrinsic worth. So there are books, many of them written centuries ago, which give as much satisfaction and make as much of an appeal as when they were first written.

In the world of merchandise, some goods must be kept in stock that have only temporary value — Time worth. It would not be good policy for a dealer to offer only high priced standard goods when the buyer wants something for temporary use only. So in libraries, it would be equally short-sighted to say, "The interest in these books is only a passing phase, we will not buy them", for who knows where that interest may lead?

A library must necessarily buy some books that people will outgrow and get beyond. Books of science and the industrial arts are of this sort. Research and invention sometimes sweep aside in one night all that has before been known. On the radio, for instance, we must buy the latest that we can get. Certain novels

*) **Cutter, Charles A.** Should libraries buy only the best books or the best books that people will read? *Library journal*, 26: 70-72, 1901.

champion movements that powerfully affect society at the moment, and they are demanded although they may be out-of-date as soon as the wave passes. All of these may be said to have Time worth, as also books on the Great War. It was impossible to guess then which would live and which would not, but they were needed for immediate use. Inaccurate and short-sighted as they were, they were the best procurable up to that time. From these selection was somewhat difficult, for, as was said, "The roar of guns at the trenches was almost equalled by the roar of the printing presses behind them".

The necessity will thus be seen for buying books that have Time worth, and being able to recognize that those of Time worth must be replaced later by others of Intrinsic worth.

In this world of business, fitness to a locality is considered in stocking up a store. Snow shoes may not be found in the shops of New Orleans although those of Marquette may be full of them. Such goods may be said to have Local worth. In our library, this is exemplified by the Michigan collection. Many of the books and pamphlets we treasure highly in this room are absolutely nil when it comes to Intrinsic worth, but they represent an impulse toward literary expression in Grand Rapids in early days and we may say that they have Local worth.

A good furniture salesman can tell all about the material in a desk, whether solid or veneered, whether or not the various devices are patented, what the finish is, and the mechanism. He knows the process of production from beginning to end, its cost, and the relation of the cost of production to the finished product. So a librarian should know how books are printed and bound, and be a judge of the quality of book paper and binding materials. He should know something about illustrations and their relative values, why a half tone is cheaper than a copper engraving, why some little books are more costly than large ones. The process and cost of production of a book, therefore, are very important things for a librarian to know, for only through knowing them can she judge whether or not a book is priced reasonably. And this translated into library phraseology is, "Learn how a book is made, what materials are in it, and its money value".

Publishers may not be found in every town, but most towns have book-store. A study of the business methods of book-store is of value to librarians. For instance, a book dealer is careful not to load with stock that will not sell, so a librarian can learn a

lesson about overstocking with one subject and understocking with another. To overload with light literature and expensive, little used subscription books must be guarded against.

The foreign dealer keeps the librarian in touch with foreign publications. In this library we have had much help from this source, especially in the purchase of Dutch books. By using their letters as samples one may learn from them the art of dignified, old world letter writing. Foreign correspondence makes the task of book importation delightful.

To be in touch with second-hand dealers who will notify the library of out-of-print books and bargains is also very advantageous.

The subscription agent, too, has a place, if not in the librarian's affections, in his attention. There are agents and agents. As one man expressed it, "There is a difference between a book agent and a book man". Many great works, at least at first, have been sold in no other way. A test in examining a subscription book is to go for some subject in it that you know and see whether it is accurate; for instance, an article on the city where you live. You would be able thus to judge whether or not the work is accurately written.

And to sum up — competence in buying is not attained when a librarian responds only to the immediate need of the readers. He or she must remember that although some of the books have only Time or Local worth, yet the bulk of them must have Intrinsic value and that in his buying he is building a foundation of reading material that will stand for lasting service.

Narrowness or personal bias should have no place with a librarian; rather, moderation, broad toleration, intelligent sympathy, and understanding of human nature should be his aim. However, carelessness should not be mistaken for broad toleration nor prejudice for moderation *).

Selecting books for children.

There are two main lines which the librarian should have in mind in the selecting of children's books. First, she will see to it that every child of fourteen is thoroughly familiar with the classics in juvenile literature, those productions which from every point of

*) **Pollard, Anni A.** Competence in book buying (Revised). Public Libraries, 29. 449-52. Excerpts from article.

Miss **Pollard** is Second Assistant Librarian, Grand Rapids Public Library.

view are satisfying, providing food for the imagination and heart, ideals of high and noble living, clothing beautiful thoughts in the pure and lovely garb of gracious language. Into this class we gather such treasures as the Greek myths rendered by Kingsley; Hawthorne and Lamb, the Norse stories retold by Mabie, the fables of Aesop, the folk tales of Grimm, Jacobs, Harris, the fairy stories of Andersen, Kipling, Dodgson and Ruskin, the legends of the Middle Ages told in no less beautiful style than Howard Pyle's, the tales from Shakespeare in Lamb's English. Darton's Canterbury pilgrims, with Robinson Crusoe and Pilgrim's Progress, Don Quixote and Froissart and Plutarch; and always the stories of beautiful verse which it is a sin not to help a child to love. These are the books which cultivated people call literature, and it is our duty to try by every possible means to emphasize them. We must never allow our stock of these to run short or to become unattractively shabby. If we have story hours and bulletins and book marks and literary ladders we must use them to arouse interest in and curiosity regarding these best treasures. With our smallest children we must use especial effort to see that they do not acquire the mediocre habit, for it is very easy to guide the beginner. With the older ones it means the exercise of consummate tact, but the results are worth the effort. When we have an opportunity to talk before parents' associations or women's clubs we must be able to convince them of the importance of a child's not being deprived of the joy, both now and hereafter, of knowing and loving the best in literature.

And then, in the next place, to the deciding of which and how many of the confessedly mediocre books we shall admit to our shelves we must bring much careful thought. We realize that for the children who have acquired the taste for poor stuff, so that it is difficult to persuade them of the joy to be found in those great books, which they would have loved if brought up with them from early years, we must provide some things to be used as baits, but we mean they shall also serve as stepping stones upward. Our task is to decide what ones, out of the mass of material bordering on trash, have enough of merit to make them useful to our end without being harmful to the children.

While there are plenty of books classed as non-fiction which need more careful elimination than is sometimes given, our chief concern is with the child's story book, because fiction is the most popular class and because it is from the story book hero or heroine that the child unconsciously but surely absorbs many of his ideals

and principles and is therefore strongly affected in his character. We shall be obliged to let down the bars in the matter of literary style, but there are degrees even of mediocrity and we never need to include those which are written in the language of a positively common person. But when it comes to moral tone we should never lower our standard an iota, and to the decision as to whether a book will leave a child no worse for the reading of it, one must bring first a belief that it matters what sort of books we give the children, next a knowledge of child nature, and the penetration to discriminate clearly between "preaching" and "practicing". I might say — that is, to decide unerringly whether the impression to be made on the child will be that of the author's highly moral advice or of the hero's immoral actions and bad associations.

There is no time to enter here upon a discussion of the faults of the average story book for boys and girls that will fill the counters of the book stores next fall. The time limits hold one to the merest opening up of the whole subject. The most I allow myself to hope is that some few who have not looked upon the selection of their children's books as a matter of serious importance may give more of personal attention and care to the subject. Of course, when all has been said, any two librarians in this Association might agree entirely as to the qualities a book should possess and differ entirely as to whether a given book fulfilled those requirements. In book criticism the personal equation will always be a factor. But in these days, when children's rooms are springing up like mushrooms all over our land, when trained children's librarians are few and far between, when thousands of our future citizens are reading a book a day from the public libraries, and hundreds of librarians, with the best intention in the world, have not the time nor the expert knowledge to choose their children's books wisely, I think it behooves the large libraries steadily to set an example of emphasizing the best and weeding out the mediocre; and I believe that the American Library Association ought to be able so to set a standard and affect the buying of the smaller libraries that the production and sale of wishy-washy stuff will be actually modified and finally cut down from lack of profit in the business.

For all of us who have to do with the children in the library there is inspiration in the picture of the great possibilities which William De Witt Hyde holds up before the teachers, in speaking of the value of good literature in the public schools. I can not

better close than by quoting from him words which tell briefly what I have been trying to express:

"To feed the mind of youth on the ideals of a noble and elevated human life; to win his fidelity to the family through sweet pictures of parental affection, and filial devotion, and pure household joys; to secure his loyalty to the state by thrilling accounts of the deeds of brave men and heroic women; to make righteousness attractive by pointed fable, or pithy proverb, or striking tale of self-sacrificing fidelity to the costly right against the profitable wrong; to inflame with a desire to emulate the example of patriot, martyr, and philanthropist — this is the social mission of good literature in the public schools. To interpret this literature, so that it comes home to the boys and girls, so that they see reflected in it the image of their own better selves, so that they carry with them its inspiration through all their after lives — this is the duty and privilege of the public school. It is not of so much consequence what a boy knows when he leaves school as what he loves. The greater part of what he knows he will speedily forget. What he loves he will feed on. His hunger will prompt his efforts to increase his store. The love of good literature — a genuine delight in Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell and Tennyson, Hawthorne and Scott, Shakespeare and Homer — is, from every point of view, the most valuable equipment with which the school can send its boys and girls into the world" *).

Book selection and buying.

Book selection is a most entrancing, and may be made a most extravagant piece of work. If the library is entirely new there seems to be no limit to the lines of knowledge which are demanded; if there is some stock of books on hand, the rounding up and filling out with new books is even more difficult. And in both cases the money is liable to be limited.

Remember first and foremost that Rome was not built in a day; that no library ever burst full fledged on an expectant public. The library is an artificial person, a corporation which does not get sick and never dies. What it can not buy this year it may buy

*) **Hunt, Clara W.** The children's library a moral force. *Library journal*, 31: C 101-03, 1906.

next year or year after next, or five years hence. Here is where it differs from a private individual, for, like Tennyson's brook, it "goes on forever". So do not be alarmed, excited, or discouraged because you cannot get everything at once. Many things can bear to wait. Look out for the agent who tries to impose on you by saying that you cannot again have a chance to buy at this price.

Second. As a general rule, buy the latest and freshest things first. The great demand will be for fiction, and the fiction habitués will want more than they deserve. If their demands were fully met it would mean all the latest novels and many copies of each. As it is, we make large concessions to this class, but they must not monopolize the book fund. Buy current sociology, light science, useful arts, fine arts, literature, history, biography, travels. Then as you have opportunity, go back and buy second-hand and auction books to fill gaps.

Third. Beware of bad advice. Look out for the local man who has a hobby and the trustee who wants to fill up the library on his particular line . . . I do not believe for a small library, or any library short of 50,000 volumes, in buying professional books. Of the three, I think the clergyman is liable to be most tempted and to bear the most watching. He or the "literary man" will want the "classics" — say of history, like Grote's Greece, 12 volumes, and Gibbon's Rome, eight volumes. Now, a small library can well afford to do without these, for a time, at least. They are both period histories, do not give the complete history of either nation, and require to be supplemented by other books, and this puts too much money into the bygone empires of Greece and Rome.

Another thing about the older books, the classics, they frequently come in by gift.

Fourth, beware of expensive books; and fifth, of ill-fitting books.

If you have a good local man patronize him, but generally you had better take the largest reliable book house accessible to you . . . In case of many works of fiction and some standard non-copyright books leave some latitude for the agent. Do not expect too large discounts . . . Remember that the bookman is not an object of charity, nor yet is he a thief, and give him a chance to live . . . Don't buy cheap fiction, printed from old plates on wood-pulp paper and cheaply bound. The better editions of fiction and juvenile are none too good to stand the rough usage and rebinding consequent on such usage . . . As a rule buy all you can

in cloth, even sets of encyclopedias. In buying cloth you get one wear out of your book, anyway, before rebinding, and frequently that is all you want*).

Fiction in the public library.

Cities and towns in this country establish and maintain free public libraries to help make their citizens wiser and better and happier. These libraries lend books to these citizens for use at home. Of the books they thus lend about 70 per cent are novels and story books. It is the purpose of this paper to call attention to some of the facts about the work of free public libraries in providing free novels for the public.

1. It discriminates in favor of a certain class. The sales from stores and newspaper-stands of many millions of copies each year, of novels by authors never mentioned in literary journals and never appearing in library lists, show that a large part of our people wish for books our libraries do not furnish. The absence of these same people from public libraries shows that they do not care to read the books the libraries buy. Libraries select for purchase novels talked of and read by a very small portion of their several communities. They do not buy for the submerged 90 per cent. Libraries are committed to a policy of selection and discrimination. They can pursue that policy without violating tradition or precedent.

2. Of the total annual expenditure for salaries in the average public library from 25 to 40 per cent. is spent in caring for and lending novels. The money thus spent, largely for work of a purely clerical character, like handing out the books asked for and putting them up again when returned, can not be spent on such work as giving expert advice to inquirers for information in regard to other things than novels.

3. The average library spends about 25 per cent, of its book fund each year for fiction. That is, it buys a third less books of other kinds than it would did it buy no fiction.

4. The novels which librarians lend are largely by authors who have acquired no standing in the literary world. Standard writers on English and American Literature find scarcely 100 writers of

* **Wire, G. E.** Book selection, buying, and binding. *Library journal*, 24 : C 63-65, 1899.
Dr. **Wire** was librarian of the Worcester County Law Library, Worcester, Mass.

fiction who are worthy of their consideration; while public libraries of 70,000 to 100,000 volumes find from 1200 to 2500 authors who have written books worthy of a place on their book orders and their shelves.

5. An examination of the fiction shelves of any public library shows that in general the authors most often lent are those who have not been proved by time and shown to have permanent value. Were books of a slighter literary reputation freely furnished they would, it seems, get the maximum of use.

6. The grade of the authors most often lent from public library shelves is shown also, and more definitely, by the answers to an inquiry sent to thirty-four typical libraries. These answers gave the names of all the writers of fiction whose books had been lent by each library on three days, with the total number of books by each writer. A full report on these answers is to appear in the *Outlook*. They include the names of about 800 different authors; about five times as many as good books on literature find it worth while to discuss ...

7. Libraries not only spend full 25 per cent. of their book funds on novels, many of which are poor, and 25 to 40 per cent. of their salary fund on distributing those novels; they also fail to keep on hand a good supply in attractive condition of the novels which time has tried and pronounced. Eighteen libraries searched their shelves and noted the number of copies on hand of each book in a list of 100 of the best novels. On the average each of these libraries found only half of these books in. It is probably safe to say that out of a thousand inquiries for any first-class novel at any library in the country five hundred would be answered with a "not in".

8. Libraries wish their books to be used. It has not been demonstrated that the use of their books would be less did they lessen the variety of their fiction stock by dropping the poorer kinds and increasing the quantity of the better; in fact certain experiments indicate that it would not be less.

9. In view of these facts a few suggestions have been made, as follows:

- (a) Buy of recent novels only a few.
- (b) Buy no novel until it has been out a year or more.
- (c) Put all recent novels on the list tentatively only, and drop them if time does not prove them good.

- (d) Spend less money on fiction.
- (e) Spend the money thus saved on duplicates of other good books.
- (f) If a reduction in the list of novels reduces the cost of maintenance, spend the money thus saved in attracting readers to other books.
- (g) Reduce the formality of book-borrowing still further, following recent commercial methods, and secure a larger number of borrowers.

These suggestions seem reasonable. All of them are being tried and all apparently with success.

The facts given can probably be paralleled in juvenile departments, and the suggestions apply to those departments with even more force than to the adult*).

Selecting novels for public libraries.

That books which are questionable in morals or suggestive and indecent in tone should be excluded from public libraries must be assumed. That library officials are careful in excluding books which they deem at all harmful to the morals of the community is also beyond question.

The practical question that confronts those who select the books is, how shall one give most expeditiously and accurately the information which shall guide in the selection or rejection? The most apparent means are the following: The previous reputation of the author, as shown in the books he has already written; the fiction lists of his publisher; the actual reading of the book by semi-official readers employed by the library; and, finally the personal judgment of the librarian.

There are practical difficulties in the way of all these methods. An author who has previously kept to the straight and narrow path of decency will sometimes leap over the fence and wallow in the trough of iniquity. A publisher whose publications have hitherto been without reproach, and entirely safe — *virginibus puerisque* —

*) **Dana, John C.** The place of fiction in the free public library. Library journal, 28: C 36-37, 4903.

Mr. Dana was librarian of the Newark Public Library.

may cater to the temptation of large sales and quick profits. The most sane and reliable book reviews we all know occasionally go astray, perhaps mislead by the literary charm which sometimes carries with it moral obliquity. The semi-professional book readers are slow in operation, and often vary widely in their judgment, while the librarian usually is so fully occupied that it is impossible to give the time to read all the current fiction that his clients demand.

It is easy to detect the particular faults which usually debar fiction from our shelves without somewhat careful study. It is much easier for the trained librarian to detect bad literature than bad morals. Usually the objectionable parts are confined to a few pages and are not always to be found without actual reading of a book. It is a fact beyond question that many books which are kept from libraries on account of their objectionable style and lack of literary finish are unexceptionable in point of morals, while books which are written with a good deal of literary finish frequently need the most careful scrutiny before they can be allowed entrance to the unrestricted circulation of a library*).

In the Louisville Public Library the censorship of books with regard to their moral influence is not as thoroughly organized as it might be. For this there are two reasons: first, there is no absolute or even generally accepted standard whereby every book can be judged; second, even though such a standard did exist, there are very few libraries with a staff sufficiently large to apply this standard rigidly to every book which goes into the library and to give with it a written guarantee under the pure food law, so that any innocent and unsuspecting reader may partake of it without danger to his character. Especially is this true of current novels, which must be consumed while they are warm. The problem is not stated in this form in any attempt to evade the grave responsibility in book selection. We make use of all the co-operative aids devised and have a comparatively small number of books actually read by and reported on by staff assistants and others upon whose judgment we may depend. In this way it is comparatively easy to exclude books which are decidedly bad, and our policy is pretty well understood ... The great difficulty arises with books about which

*) **Tripp, George H.** What shall libraries do about bad books. *Library journal*, 33: 350-51, 1908.

Mr. **Tripp** is librarian of the New Bedford, Mass. Public Library.

there is difference of opinion. This difference may refer to the influence of a book as a whole or of particular portions of it*).

Selecting of technical and scientific books.

In examining the engineering literature, various factors, which must be taken into account in making proper selection, become apparent. Certain branches of engineering and science, especially those capable of spectacular treatment, have been subjected to a flood of literature during recent years. The greater part of such literature, in spite of its popularity, is not only unreliable and worthless, but is actually harmful and a hindrance to true progress in engineering education.

Another deficiency in technical books, especially in those of elementary nature, is caused by the author's endeavor to place facts and laws in the most elementary manner possible, which is often done at the expense of truth and accuracy. The public demand may seem to make it necessary to place many undesirable books on the shelves, but it seems to me that just as much care should be used in barring misleading books in science and engineering as in excluding those which are detrimental from the moral standpoint.

In scientific and engineering lines the steady and rapid progress has made the need of revision of its literature especially great, and there is perhaps no other department where books so soon become of the antiquated order as here. For this reason a selection may safely be confined almost entirely to publications of the last few years.

In arguing for the organization and more efficient operation of scientific and engineering departments in the public library with the view of helping especially the working class, I am well aware that nothing new or heretofore untried is being presented... It is true that only a small percentage of the industrial workers seem to have an ambition to rise, strange as this statement may seem, and even if possessed of such, few have the enterprise to do the extra work necessary to further this ambition. The results, however, which can be effected by ministering to the requirements of those who have both ambition and enterprise, even though such number be

*) Yust, William F. What shall libraries do about bad books. *Library journal*,

small at present, is a sufficient argument for carrying on the work. In this way the library may serve as a net spread wide to catch the talent which the country produces.

Further it may be said that manufacturers have installed libraries in connection with their works and have even offered free instruction to their employees. The indifferent success which such attempts to improve the men have met points to possible failure for public libraries if they take up this work. It has been a matter of common experience, however, that advantages such as gratuitous instruction offered by employers are seldom appreciated by employees, for the majority become suspicious of the intentions, feeling that such efforts are being made in the interests of capital rather than labor. To the library this is a matter of less moment, for the public may be made to have a feeling of ownership, which is synonymous with a feeling of interest.

The library, to be a place of study, requires a good list of reference books and journals. Current technical and trade periodicals would be a drawing card, and those who possess, even to a minor degree, the ability of self-education will find here their mental nourishment. In almost every industry there are now technical books and trade journals and catalogues of very high educational value ... A most valuable part of engineering and scientific literature is in such publications and with bound volumes of the same the librarian might readily compile reading lists for those who desire to look up any particular line.

If study of drafting and designing is to be carried on it might be advisable to place at the student's disposal drafting boards or tables. By suitable scientific instruction the usefulness of the industrial worker to society is increased, his horizon is broadened, the dignity of his calling is developed; and no other agency seems as universally suited for furnishing such instruction as does the public library *).

Selecting books on religion.

In most libraries it is well to set apart for religious literature a definite proportion of the income available for books and periodicals and use this for nothing else except for literature of

*) **Burgess, Charles F.** Selection of technical and scientific books. Library journal, 27 : C 56-58, 4902.

that type. In deciding this proportion it will naturally be asked what part religion properly has in life as a whole. Is it a twentieth of life? Is it a tenth? Is it a seventh? Is it a fifth? Let such questions be answered and book funds appropriated accordingly.

Directly or indirectly all users of a public library are interested in religion. An enterprising library recognizes these facts and attempts to respond to the varying religious views of all classes. For a public library to do less than this is to assume a sectarian position and to become a partisan in the community.

The religious literature of first importance is the collection of sacred books. For Christianity there must be not only a good reference edition of the Authorized Version of the Bible but a similar copy of the American Standard Edition, of the Douay (Catholic) Bible, and the modern versions such as the shorter Bible and the New Testament translations by Moffatt and Weymouth. Likewise there must be a copy of the excellent recent translation of the Jewish Bible, with which may well be placed a copy of the Hebrew, for it has been found that those who do not read Hebrew are interested and profited by looking at the arrangement of the books in Hebrew. Equally important is a copy of the translation of the Koran (Moslem Bible) and perhaps of the Arabic from which it is translated. Similarly, there should be a translation of some at least of the sacred books of India, of China, and Japan, all of which are now available at relatively low cost and are essential if the community is to have the privilege of educating itself religiously.

There must be also the best of recent discussions of religion. Every library should have a copy, for example, of the *Reconstruction of religion* by Charles A. Elwood and the *Fundamentals of Christianity* by Henry C. Vedder. The enterprising librarian will be ready to order such books as soon as they appear, on the same principle that he orders the best new fiction by well known writers.

Will such books be read? Of course they will not be read if the librarian takes the position that they will not be read! There is little chance that the reader will get to a book if the librarian stands in the way. If, however, these books are not only placed in the library but given due publicity, put on a "new book shelf" in an attractive position, their arrival in the library bulletined as is the latest fiction, and a good reading notice placed in the local newspapers where it will catch the attention of the people who

would like to go to the library for such material but now find nothing on the library shelves which satisfies their eager minds, the librarian will have the opportunity to awake to a new day as regards the significance of religious books*).

Rare books.

It would be well if we could agree upon some practical definition of the term "rare" as applied to a book. I am inclined to think that any approach to a scientific definition of the term would not fully meet the conditions of its application in this connection.

It ought to be, and if I were called upon to give such a definition in a useful sense, I should say that a rare book is one which is much desired and hard to get. Not a scientific definition, but, I believe, a practical one. This definition, when accepted, raises a point which seems a difficult one to a great many people. The point is this: a book which is rare is not necessarily valuable. One of the most useful books which I have owned was a 17th century English folio Bible in its original oak covers nearly one-half inch thick. Many times that volume, with its plainly marked price, \$2.50, has served to convince the doubting visitor of the fact that age of a book does not necessarily establish its great value.

If, then, rarity alone does not give value to a book, it is none the less true that rarity when attached to a book otherwise desirable is indeed the cause of value. If a book is for any cause of more than usual interest, a moderate degree of rarity may be sufficient to increase its value to an almost fabulous amount.

The causes of rarity in books are, of course, numerous; but among the more prominent may be mentioned these: small editions; this accounts for rarity of the 16th, 17th and 18th volumes of the "New England historic and genealogical register"; lack of popular appreciation, by reason of which the books do not circulate but get into the junk stores (especially in the old times when paper stock was dear); too great popularity, through which volumes are literally "read to death", as in the case of the early editions of the New

*) **Lewis, Frank G.** Selecting religious books for a public library. A. L. A. Bulletin 16: 294-95, 1922.

Mr. Lewis is librarian of Crozer Theological Seminary.

England Primer. There is no known copy of the New England Primer extant bearing an earlier date than 37 years after its first publication. It frequently happens that portions of the edition of a book are destroyed by fire. It is thought that this accounts for the superlative rarity of Poe's first book, the famous "Tamerlane". Sometimes the author, in a fit of repentance for having written the book, destroys all the copies which he can find especially if the volume happens to be a juvenile production of which his maturer judgment fails to appreciate.

The whole subject of the value of books is interesting if not entirely instructive. Sometimes, indeed, the results are quite mystifying to anyone seeking to explain them. When buyers of unlimited means compete with each other for a coveted volume there is apt to be a reckless smashing of records. Once the appetite of these buyers is satisfied, or their ardor cooled by reflection, prices are apt to resume their normal condition. If a volume appears in auction sales with a reasonable frequency, however, we may safely trust to an average of the prices obtained as representing approximately its value.

Thirty years ago First Editions could be purchased for fewer cents than they now command in dollars, and for the present state of prices the collector is responsible. The discriminating collector of to day demands First Editions of the earliest works of the most esteemed authors in immaculate condition. At the same time it is only fair to say that he is usually willing to pay what might look like extravagant prices to gratify his wants. Broadly speaking the first among the classes of rare books which are in particular demand are what the French term *provenances*, or books which have acquired special interest from association; either volumes bearing presentation inscriptions from authors of prominence or books from their own libraries containing their autographs, and perhaps bearing their annotations.

Perhaps the most prominent class of book rarities in demand among collectors at the present time is First Editions of early works in belles lettres. We may group together books relating to genealogy and American history, especially in its more local forms, as interesting to still another class of buyers. Out-of-the-way books on this subject are eagerly sought for and are not likely to decrease in value. Besides these leading subjects there are numberless rare books which are demanded to meet the wants of collectors in special lines. The tendency of the day toward specialization is

plainly seen in the book world. We have collectors of books on Juveniles, Gift books, Local imprints, Washington, Franklin, Lincoln and an immense variety of other subjects. The book market is constantly being drained of its treasures to feed these special collections. The subject of these special collections would furnish material for a very interesting talk. Many of them are made primarily for the pleasure of the owners in the process of assembling the material, but with more or less definite intention to finally incorporate them in some public collection.

The buyer of rare books must constantly be upon his guard against imperfect copies. The temptation to purchase them is great but he had better withstand it. The chances are that he will only do so after expensive experiences. The great difference of value between a book that is perfect and in choice condition and one that is incomplete or in poor state is a hard lesson for him to learn.

Leaving out of account the buyer of books for the purpose of general reading, the sale of rare books may be said to divide itself between collectors and public libraries. The motto of the collector to-day is completeness; whatever his hobby may be his aim is to make his collection complete within its limits.

I am sometimes asked this question: "How can I tell if a book is rare and desirable should I happen to find it?" To this I can only reply that the knowledge of rarities may come by experience, but to know what is desirable must come by intuition; either one has, or has not the book sense. If it is not natural to him he may attain a certain degree of proficiency, but he can never become an adept in the noble sport of book hunting*).

Character of books desirable for children.

One of the most significant culture movements of the decade in this country is the encroachment of the library upon the school. In the grades the library now goes to the school and the school to the library. Librarians make the children's reading room attractive and tell stories even on fine days, when some children ought to be out doors, and offer most seductive lists of supplementary reading for every grade and topic. The high schools expect the pupils to

*) **Goodspeed, C. E.** Rare books; adress before Massachusetts Library Club, April 24, 1902. *Library journal*, 27: 320-23, 1902.

the Navy, Printing, Transportation, Cooking, Hawaii, Fishing, find help in the library for debates and composition, if not for daily lessons, and librarians teach them how to get at what they want. In the college and the university the library is becoming more and more the heart of everything and the professor a grand chamberlain to introduce books, give their credentials and inspire to read them. The library is the center of the seminary and a necessity even in the laboratory.

One danger that now looms big is that of mediocrity, of the second or tenth best in literature; for the great problem of selection from the so rapidly growing mass of juvenile books is by no means solved, not even in Germany by Ziegler's *Jugendschriftenwarte* with its 78 committees in 28 German states, or by Wolgast's *Prüfungsausschüsse*, that gets often a dozen expert verdicts for each book and accepts or condemns to oblivion, a muster that is hard for a poor book to pass and upon which the sentences pronounced are crushing. The sad fact remains that children can develop a veritable *cacoëthes legendi*, or a passion for reading per se — things on or below their own level, that they ought to learn in the more vital ways of experience and conversation. Printing gives no added value to commonplaces, and the reading habit must not dignify platitudes. Apprehension through the printed page is slower and involves more nervous strain than perception, and the book is liable to get between the child and nature and life. Child life in the field, on the street or at home, is rich and must not be encroached upon. Not only may the knack of reading or seeing familiar things through the medium of print, by authors who strive to get down to the children and tickle them by quaint affectations of style, become a distinctly neurotic habit, but it may make things near them seem afar and unreal and bring mental anemia. The charm to a country child of reading in the first grade literature of the cow, pig, dog, cat, which he knows so well at first hand, is almost meretricious, and the same is true for the city child and also up the grades. Nor is it well to spend much time in reading about what every child is certain to learn anyway at first hand a little later.

Differences in reading tastes between boys and girls, which are very slight in early childhood, appear several years before puberty, and thereafter increase rapidly. These differences are so spontaneous, so well established by many statistical studies by various methods upon so many thousand children that they should be duly recognized by librarians, teachers and parents. These are among the

most interesting and important revelations of how very diversely nature has decreed that the soul of the two sexes should develop. Chief among these taste differences are the following: girls usually read most books. If they do not acquire the habit earliest, they certainly maintain it after that of boys has begun to decline and some censuses indicate that they read most at all ages. Even at those ages when they certainly read most, viz., the later teens, they read fewer different books; that is, a larger number read the same. Girls rely more upon the recommendation of teachers, companions and others, while boys show greater independence and individuality of choice, and hence use on the average a wider range of books. Girls read what others read, while the books others know have less charm and sometimes almost repel boys, who prefer to be ignorant of what all others about them know and to interest themselves in what none or few others have read. Again, secret and clandestine reading of literature that is condemned, forbidden or disapproved is more common among boys, for prohibition attracts them and arouses their curiosity. Hence, they more often fall victims even to the literature that it is a crime to print, circulate or own. The vast amount of this literature now confiscated and destroyed by the purity societies shows at once the extent of the danger and gives hopes that protective agencies against it are becoming more effective. In the teens, boys often look somewhat askance at reading recommended to them by lady teachers, who often fail to understand how widely their tastes differ from those of girls. With the present feminization of teaching, therefore, boys are more uncontrolled in their reading. This, I think, we may connect with the oft noted fact that men, young and old, often condemn much which they read when young, while women are more prone to advise others to read what they did when girls; their mature judgment more often coinciding with their childish tastes. Both sexes love literature about animals, but in a different way; girls preferring accounts of pets and domestic animals, while boys care more for the literature of wild, savage beasts and for hunting. Girls love cats, which ripening boys often abhor, strongly preferring dogs, often sharing the enmity of the canidae for the felidae. This may be atavism, for men were huntsmen of old, while primitive women domesticated nearly all the animals that serve man.

Again, boys read most history, science, and travels, girls most novels and poetry. The historic interest of the latter is more often personal than biographic. Boys love adventure, girls sentiment.

Women writers appeal far more strongly to girls in the teens than to boys, for whom at this age few women can write attractively. In childhood both sexes are interested in fairy tales, but girls most, and while boys practically cease to care for them by the fourth or fifth grade, girls' zest continues through the sixth, seventh and later. Girls care far more for niceness, whether of style, binding, or illustration; treat books better and are more amenable to library rules. As between content and form, girls care relatively more for the latter, boys for the former. Girls love to read stories about girls which boys eschew, girls, however, caring much more to read about boys than boys to read about girls. Books dealing with domestic life and with young children in them girls have almost entirely to themselves. Boys on the other hand, excel in the love of humor, rollicking fun, abandon, rough horse-play and tales of wild escapades. Girls are less averse to reading what boys like than boys are to reading what girls like. A book popular with boys would attract some girls, while one read by most girls would repel a boy in the middle teens. The reading interests of high school girls are far more humanistic, cultural, and general, and that of boys is more practical, vocational, and even special. Girls' interest in love stories and romance is earlier, far greater and continues longer than with boys, and the same is true, although to a somewhat less extent, for society tales.

Reading crazes seem to be experienced in some degree at some time by the majority of school children. Some read for years with abandon and intoxication, rushing through an amount of literature that would seem incredible were not the evidence so abundant, while with others the passion is milder and briefer. It usually occurs just before or perhaps in the early teens, when it seems as if the soul suddenly took flight, awakening with a start to the possibilities of transcending the narrow limitations of individual life and expanding personality toward the dimensions of the race itself, as if trying to become a citizen of all times and a spectator of all events. This is one of the most interesting phenomena of youth standing tip-toe on the mound of expectation as the vista of life first bursts upon his view. Those who experience this in full measure are never the same thereafter. It seems to occur somewhat earlier in girls than in boys, and to more often cause a bifurcation of the inner life of idealization and fancy with the outer life of dull and often monotonous daily routine of a girl's life in school or home. In reverie she dreams of wealth, splendor, heroic wooers who take her

away to a life where all desires are fulfilled, where the possible becomes actual and castles in the air materialize. This also often makes the future seem so rich and full that some disillusion is inevitable later. Boys, in the book craze, also sometimes read away from life; but feeling that their destiny is to be of their own making are more liable to be spurred to action, occasionally to be sure, to run away, to fight Indians or become bandits, or beat their way to a city and to fortune; but usually to strive to achieve more legitimate ambition, to win fame, fortune, beautiful maidens and to do great deeds. Ruskin and others since have deprecated the danger of such passionate devotion to the reading of the best things life has to offer him lest ordinary life pale by comparison and become humdrum and insipid and home and parents seem stupid and commonplace, but is it not on the whole well to feel strong and early the spurs of that discontent which is the first step to better both self and environment?

It is already possible, however, to make a good beginning of a juvenile library of books children of each age prefer, and one of the chief needs of the day in this field is more statistical data of what they love best and a canon of child classics or Bible compiled from their suffrages, or of what they most often recommend to each other. Those are greatly in error who think we have solved the problem of children's reading. We have, in fact, just begun to see its dimensions. We can, however, already (1) perceive some great crying needs of books of a kind which do not exist, (2) discern the outlines of a method of selection not yet applied, and (3) some principles of elimination by which an index expurgatorius could be begun. Let us consider these:

1. We need a series of animal and bird books, of which as yet I have never seen a single proper specimen; for instance, a monkey book, a book devoted to the wolf, fox, bear, lion, tiger, elephant, dog, eagle, and two or three dozen other forms of animal life ...

2. Another crying need of childhood for mental pabulum even in this age of juvenile books is for condensed and simplified stories of the great mythic cycles, epics and classics that arose and took form in the youth of all the great races that loom up in history. There is a rich mother-lye of culture that has had vitality enough to survive for ages before, and without the aid of print, and which constituted about the whole of the educational material of older days ...

3. Another type of child book we need is an account of primitive and savage life. Frobenius, in his "Aus den Flegeljahren der Menschheit", has shown almost like a revelation what can be done and how the right article is welcomed. He was an anthropologist and has compiled with over 400 cuts a simple story of how the lower races live, hunt, play, weave, manufacture, cook, eat, sleep, fight; their myths, religious ceremonies, family and tribal organizations, etc., laying the vast resources of ethnology under tribute to show the young how the majority of men who have peopled this earth in the past, and a good fourth now actually meet the problems of life, regard sun, moon, stars, sea, trees, animals, fields, fire, lightning, the clouds, and think of the origin and end of man and all things . . .

I have only touched a few points in this vast field, but I cannot close without an earnest plea for more oral story telling ways of introducing books to children. Mankind heard and spoke for untold ages before they wrote and read. The ear and mouth way is shorter and vastly more effective than the long circuit tract of pen wagging and taking in meaning from the printed page by the eye. In the great literary eras in France conversation gave the style to books and in the dull periods conversely books gave the style to conversation and people talked bookishly. Thrice happy the child who makes its first acquaintance with the great monuments of literature which arose when the world was young not by reading, but under the spell of the story-teller's art . . . Next to telling is reading to children, but for one, I care not how much even this function encroaches upon school time or breaks up its routine. As to reading and especially at adolescence it is chiefly to satisfy the feelings which then and thereafter are three-fourths of the soul and represent the life of the race, while the intellect is chiefly an individual product and, therefore, more accidental. Four great definitions of education by four of its greatest prophets are that it consists of learning to fear aright, to be angry aright, to pity aright and to love aright, and thus the affections are tuned to the world without. Girls must, of course, have love stories and, although they must be pure, there must be enough of evil to suggest adequately some of the degrees of vileness in the world, though with the triumph of virtue sure in the end. Literature should preform moral choices which, having acted aright in ideal cases, will be more likely to do so in real and trying emergencies. Urgent as are practical needs in our age and land, librarians seem now likely to be held

more and more responsible as guardians of all those educational agencies that take the individual out of his narrowness into the larger life of the race. Hence, I believe you are only just at the beginning of your task of ministering to the young*).

*) **Hall, G. Stanley.** Children's reading as a factor in their education. Library journal, 33: 123-28, 1908.

Dr. **Hall**, formerly President of Clark University, was one of our most noted psychologists.

B. BOOK REVIEWS.

Methods of book reviewing.

In these days when the number of books has multiplied amazingly, when advertising has become artful and clamorous, it is increasingly difficult for the individual to select the limited number of books which it is possible for him to read. Hence it is obvious that good book reviewing is of growing importance as an aid to judicious selection.

It has been said that late Lord Acton, a distinguished scholar read on the average a book a day. Some time ago the Independent pointed out that, if one could reach that rate, he would make a very slight impression on the 135,000 or 140,000 books published every year throughout the civilized world. But suppose one should confine himself to the English language, and out of the books printed in the English language consider only those printed in the United States, there would be 8000 or more books a year to read. The task of an American would, however, not be so severe as that of a German who would have to read three times as many to cover the books published in his country. To read the multitude of books published is then a hopeless task. The function of the book review is to aid us in deciding intelligently which books of the confusing multitude we shall read.

For the library committee and the librarian good book reviews are of the utmost service. Only the very great libraries can acquire all the valuable new books, excluding the trashy and worthless from consideration. The small library with limited funds must exercise a wise discretion in buying these books, to the extent of its resources which will on the whole be of greatest benefit to its readers. The reviews in the best literary journals are the most valuable guides. Hence it is well worth the librarian's while to consider the merits of different types of reviewing.

Of course, book reviewing at a low level is simply a form of advertising; at its best it becomes much more than advertising — it rises to the dignity of literary criticism. I can qualify neither as a publicity agent for publishers nor as an expert literary critic.

approach the subject rather as an editor who has observed in his experience several types of book reviews. I wish to describe briefly some of these types of book reviews and to indicate their usefulness.

I suppose that the first and most obvious direction that might be given to one about to write a book review is, "Read the book". I have no doubt that a large proportion of published book reviews are written by persons who have not wholly read the books which they review. Sometimes a book is too dull and the weary reviewer passes a disgusted verdict before he reaches the end. I am reminded on this score of dullness of the New York *Sun's* five-word review of certain biography published a few years ago by a distinguished university professor. After the usual heading giving the publisher's name, the number of volumes, the pages, etc., the review was in the following words: "This work weighs four pounds".

A large proportion of book notices and reviews in daily newspapers are of slight value because they are written by non-readers. Often the publisher's advertising circular is used or worked over by a hurried editor, who has hardly glanced through the book. There is no discriminating and critical estimate of the work. The only value of such a notice is to call attention to the publication of a book on the subject concerned. On the other hand, some reviews written by those who have only partly read books have considerable value. This is so when the reviewer is one competent and informed on the subject and when he possesses the knack of extracting in a rapid survey of the work what is really vital. Such reviews may be really critical, though in some measure incomplete. They may give an excellent estimate of the worth of a book.

Serious reviews, however, usually demand an attentive reading of all, or at least the greater part, of a book. But the fact that a book has been read from cover to cover does not necessarily mean that a review will be of any critical value. That depends upon the equipment and competence of the reviewer. Many so-called book reviews are merely accurate reports or abstracts of the contents of the book. Such reviews or abstracts have a decided informational value and when well prepared are often of much interest, but they cannot be said to rise to the level of true literary criticism.

Of truly critical reviews, several types may be distinguished. One type frequently met with in the journals of learned societies might be called the microscopic review. The editor turns over the

work of one specialist to the tender mercies of another specialist for review. The latter is desirous of showing his own superior knowledge of a subject; sometimes he may be a rival of the author. He often pays little attention to a general estimate of the book under review, but begins a detective hunt to expose every possible error in the book. If ten or twenty errors can be found they are set forth with the page references. The author is also informed of various sources of information which he should have used, but apparently did not know about. The cumulative effect of all this is to raise doubts whether the book is worth anything. Such reviews often provoke retorts from authors, and I have known several angry controversies to be waged between reviewer and author. As a matter of fact, a book may often be very useful in spite of numerous errors, if it deals with a subject of great detail. This method of piling up evidence of carelessness or ignorance is, however, very destructive in case of a really weak book.

Another type is the review essay. This is after the style of the great English reviews. One or more books on a subject furnish the text, as it were, for an essay by an expert. This essay may be very brilliant and informing, but often the writer in presenting his own ideas seems to forget the books he is supposedly reviewing. They are dismissed with a few perfunctory sentences. In this case the reviewer is like the preacher who, in the course of his sermon, is carried by his own eloquence far from the text originally proposed. Sometimes the essay writer takes a worthless book and makes it serve his purpose as the object of his amusing and clever satire. If the essay really does not inform us about the books supposedly reviewed, however able it is, it is not satisfactory as a book review. It uses space without serving our purpose. If the essay is a savage attack upon a poor book, it is unnecessary and inhumane. As Mr. Slosson, the literary editor of the *Independent*, says: "A man is not necessarily a criminal because he has written a poor book. Cover it with a mantle of silence and let it die a natural death".

Somewhat similar to the essay of the literary reviews is the article based on a considerable number of books on the same or similar subjects. This is a pleasant running discussion of the books, with perhaps a paragraph or so on each one. This is not thoroughgoing or critical reviewing, but a clever writer using this method may present in a minimum of space the salient merits and characteristics of many books.

Without discussing too much in detail other possible methods of reviewing, let us consider what is the most serviceable sort of review for the purpose of the individual or librarian who is seeking to select books wisely. The first object of a good review is to give information to readers that there is such a book. Usually the review is preceded by a formal heading describing the book as to exact title, size, pages, publisher, and sometimes price. Next a fair review should seek to state what the author has tried to do, to explain at more or less length his position or argument, and to discuss it in as readable a manner as possible. It will be in order for the reviewer in his discussion to point out peculiar merits or marked defects in the work under discussion. If the book in general be good, I do not think that too much should be made of such slight errors as are liable to creep into any book. Of course, a multitude of such errors would indicate carelessness and would cause one to distrust the scholarly spirit of an author. If the reviewer have special knowledge of the book, I think that it would also be in order for him to present his own views of the subject under discussion. Of course, the order in which these elements of a good review receive attention is subject to some variation. But I think that a critical review of about the type described will best serve the purpose of one who reads book reviews in order to choose wisely what he shall buy for a library or read for himself. Of the various methods of reviewing which have been mentioned, this, then, is the one which I think on the whole most useful: "Whether one buys, begs, borrows or steals books, he needs to know how to select them intelligently". And this last type of review seems to me the greatest aid to intelligent selection*).

Worth of book reviews.

The book review columns in the daily papers have been set aside as a concession to the public. The multiplication of books and the increase of readers has so widened the interest in current literature that editors, who are, after all, very wise and far-seeing persons, have recognized that the up-to-date journal which gives a page each day of sporting events ought to be able to devote a column a day to books. The book column has proved so popular that

*) **Glasson, William H.** Methods of book reviewing. Library journal, 37: 433-35, 1912.

most great newspapers have weekly literary supplements. To these the leading authors of the day contribute essays and critical articles. Thus gradually the book reviewer or literary editor of the daily paper has come to have almost as great an influence as the editors of the literary magazines.

The newspaper reviewer has much more space at his command than the magazine critic. He is supposed to know what will please the public, and the very nature of his work has compelled him to modify the old accepted style of review. For this reason it has become more and more the custom to avoid analysis and to sell the story. Newspaper readers care less about the author's style than they do about his plot. When they turn to the literary column they are pleased to know that Mr. Lariat Sombrero, the talented young western author who recently settled in Chicago, has written a new novel dealing with the breezy life of the prairies. They do not care to know whether Lariat Sombrero has improved his English. His split infinitives and his reckless use of shalls and wills disturb them not at all. They do not care whether he has grasped life truly and striven to interpret its meanings philosophically. What they want to know is whether the hero is a masterful young man who supplies incident for the pages of the book. They have a curiosity to find out whether the story ends happily. It used to be one of the unwritten laws of book reviewing that the story never should be spoiled for the possible reader. But nowadays the book reviewer in the daily papers frequently feels impelled to tell the whole plot to the end. His column is a feature. It must be made worth reading. While it may be a medium through which publishers can advertise their wares, above all things it must be made entertaining enough to hold the public interest. It has to compete with the tragedies and comedies of real life as recorded in the news columns. It has been charged that the book reviews in the newspapers are written with the main object of obtaining advertisements from the publishers, but the unjustness of this accusation must be generally acknowledged. The business office and the editorial department as a rule do not interfere. The book reviewer is given free rein. It is supposed that he will be trustworthy and conscientious. The fact that he points out the defects in a book does not deter the publisher from advertising in a newspaper that contains an unfavorable review. It must be remembered that the literary editor probably has praised nine books from each publisher where he has criticized one. As a rule publishers are

satisfied if they have their share of notice. They are long-suffering and patient. I have never known one of them to protest against a sarcastic or otherwise unkind book notice. The very nature of their business appears to fill them with an inexhaustible stock of hope.

This brings one to the question concerning the personality of the book reviewer. Is he conscientious and unbiased? As a rule, can his opinions be relied upon? Is he not likely to have strong preferences for certain lines of writing? May not his predilection for history and philosophy make him unfit to pass judgment on poetry and fiction? Does not the worth or worthlessness of his criticism depend too much upon the temperament? Those who happen to have had even a glimpse of the work of reviewing must know that a critic's lot is not a happy one. They know that the daily process of reading all sorts of books has the effect of wearing away many individual tastes. The reviewer devours books automatically, and withal so hastily that he has not time properly to taste them or to note their distinct flavors.

It is to be expected that the book reviewer will be compelled to fight mental dyspepsia; but, fortunately, there are always plenty of books that act as tonics after the critic has been sated by inane fiction. As a rule it may be said that fear of this mental dyspepsia causes the majority of reviewers to be unduly kind to the literary works that pass through their hands.

A question often asked is whether the imprint of a publishing house famous for the high quality of its books does not influence the critic to praise mediocre writing. But even the wisest publishers will be found nodding nowadays, and every firm is likely now and then to bring out one or two books that are not up to its highest standard. It must be acknowledged that to a certain extent the reviewer is swayed by the publisher's name, but long experience has shown that American critics are quick to recognize excellence wherever found . . .

The reviewer is of course, the coadjutor of the advertiser. The department of promotion in every publishing firm approves of the book reviewer. Even when his work is not scholarly or worthy, the literary critic of the daily newspaper at least calls attention to new books. He awakens interest among a class of persons not reached by the distinctly literary journals or even by the monthly magazines. He has therefore a great responsibility. His opportunity for doing good is tremendous. It is his privilege to introduce the

new books to the public. The advertiser keeps the public from forgetting them. The advertising methods of publishers have come in for quite as much criticism as the reviewing methods of literary critics.

Although it is easy to laugh at the megaphone system of crying literary wares, no thinking person can deny that it has produced good results.

The newspaper reviews and advertisements buried among police items and department store announcements have awakened interest among thousands of persons who otherwise would not know when a new poet sings his first song or when a sincere student of life writes a great novel. The newspaper reviews lead to the reading of literary magazines. They inspire a curiosity to become familiar with the works that are exploited in the public prints.

Figures show that the vogue of the book review is on the increase and that the reviewers continue to multiply. Because nothing is perfect in this world, the book review that is in every way worthy may not be common, but there is not a month that does not bring to the public some essay of rare value. In this day good writing is so common that it passes almost unnoticed. But the time has gone by when Americans can be easily led by the opinions of any dictator. This is seen in the decadence of the editorial and even in the loss of a certain arbitrary influence that preachers used to wield. For this reason the book review is read nowadays more for the news about the latest publications than for the guidance it may afford. In the case of literature that is really good, the book review does splendid service in bringing it before the public. Novels are likely to be read simply because they are novels, but poetry, philosophy, and history are not sought with the same avidity as the story that promises to introduce readers to an unreal world. A paragraph from the pen of some master mind, quoted in the course of a perfunctory review, may awaken a desire to become familiar with the work of power. Verses taken at random from the book of a poet may win for the unknown singer a wide following. Lines culled here and there from the pages of an essay may make thousands think. These possibilities lead to the belief that even though the book review may be only a book notice, even though it may be a careless synopsis of a careful author's work, even though it may be often unjust and frequently unworthy, it is an agent of modern education. Since this is true, its worth overbalances its

worthlessness to such an extent that it must be accepted as a permanent feature of modern journalism. In the future it may improve. Indeed there may come a time when every library school has a department for the training of book reviewers, but until that period arrives it is necessary to be to the faults of the review "a little blind and to its virtues wondrous kind" *).

*) **Klinkaid, Mary H.** The book review; its worth and worthlessness. Library journal. 27 : 827-29, 1902.

C. BUYING BOOKS.

Principles of book buying.

The problem of buying would be immensely simplified for any library if its purchases were limited to current publications. The popular conception is, perhaps, that this is the case, but along with the requests which come from borrowers alone are many suggestions for books which the library's agent does not have in stock, or, indeed, for books which may be altogether out of print.

We may safely say, however, that orders for current American books will preponderate and that for the supplying of these books the library should have a regular agent.

Unless the trade is to be distributed for local reasons it will probably be an advantage to deal almost wholly with one firm. There will be only little, if any, variation between different houses in the matter of prices, and with the trade centered in this way the possibility of confusion in orders will be eliminated, there will be a saving of carriage, and in time there will be a better understanding of the needs of the library and the temper of its patrons on the part of the dealer. Many elements will come in to effect the choice of the library agent, but the size and standing of the house and the intelligence and promptness of the service would seem to be the determining factors.

Every library will settle for itself the nature of the relations thus established between its agent and itself. One may prefer to send selected lists from time to time, another may have books sent on approval, while a third may through its librarian select books for purchase.

Perhaps the best results will arise from a combination to the examination of catalogues and reviews and an examination of the books themselves. Certainly there can be no substitute for the occasional examination of books, before purchase, on account of the almost invariable tendency of the reviewing journals to unduly praise current publications. In order, however, to make the best use of this personal examination, unless one has the books sent to the library for a careful reading, a fairly constant reading of reviews, catalogues and announcements will be necessary.

The librarian will naturally have at hand as many as possible of the trade catalogues, publishers' lists, etc., — what we may call the tools for purchase. All matters of cost and discount will, of course, be left to the agent, but I believe that, so far as the library is able to do it, the price of every book ordered should be written on the order slip. This will not only tell the price of a particular book ordered, but will give what is important, at any rate towards the close of the financial year, the aggregate for the outstanding orders.

All this assumes that the orders are for American books. Unless the library agent is an importer the library will have to add perhaps an English, French, German, or Italian agent. Unless also the American agent has an extensive import trade or has foreign connections there will be a saving to the library in selecting some well established firm, either in this country or in Europe, which makes a specialty of foreign books. Except in those cases where the book is rare or out of print the library will save time by placing the order with some importing dealer in this country and run the risk of his having the book in stock. In the case of books difficult to obtain the library will undoubtedly gain by ordering direct from some large European book center. If a library is filling its deficiencies the need for this is likely to arise constantly, but if the foreign orders are not large or difficult to obtain it will simplify matters to have them in the hands of one or, at most, two agents.

Besides the methods of purchase through the regular library agent there remain at least three other ways, all of which are worth consideration as the need arises. These are: 1) orders from priced catalogues; 2) orders from auction catalogues; 3) personal examination of books at the stores of the second-hand dealers.

1. No library will fail to receive at fairly frequent intervals priced catalogues for books which dealers can supply at once. These catalogues frequently contain bargains which it is worth the while of the library to avail itself of, if there is need of anything on the list. There is undoubtedly a standard price which particular books tend to approximate but different dealers will have different opportunities to come by their books and occasionally there will be a considerable variation in price. A dealer's stock is largely replenished from buying private libraries and from bids in the auction-room. If the prices which he himself paid are low he can in turn afford to sell at a lower figure than some other dealer who

has to pay more for his books. But perhaps the chief advantage from buying in this way is that out of print books can be obtained at once and at a fixed price.

2. The sale of books at auction furnishes another method of purchase. We are apt possibly to associate these sales with high prices and with the bids of private buyers. There are many instances, of course, where prices increase, but it is equally true that certain classes of books tend to depreciate in value.

3. Finally there is the method of purchasing by personal examination of the shelves of the second-hand dealers. Here we come to a field which has been made familiar through the pages of Burton, Andrew Lang and Eugene Field. It has, however, besides this special and antiquarian interest to the individual buyer, a distinct use to libraries. Here are oftentimes large collections of books, many of which the library may stand in need of, gathered from many different sources, and usually offered at moderate prices. Libraries will frequently find it desirable to examine the stock and to consult the dealers. These men have a marvellously complete acquaintance with their own collections, a wide acquaintance with the book-market and with book-prices. As a class, few give themselves more devotedly and unreservedly to their calling, and when we pay them what seems a round sum for some rarity we are, unless we are well posted on prices, doing better than we should by buying at auction, and we pay them therefore for their knowledge and experience.

All of these methods will come in for a share of attention by any library which buys at all extensively. No one can be pursued to the exclusion of the others, without loss *).

Methods of book buying, Boston Public Library.

It has been said that the buying of books is like the making of friends; more often than not it is a haphazard business, delightful, precarious, fraught with great consequences, expensive, necessary, and sometimes most unfortunate. Be that as it may, the method of buying in a large library may be of interest to those who follow, perhaps, a less formal process ...

*) **Whitmore, Frank H.** Some general principles of book buying. *Library journal*, 31: 46-47, 1906.

Mr. Whitmore is librarian of the East Chicago Public Library.

Take, for example, the current books received on approval. Arrangements are made with certain booksellers to send a copy of every new book they may have in stock, subject to return. There are, of course, omissions, but on the whole a large number of the books of the day are received in this way. They are chiefly in the English language, but a limited number of French, German and Italian books are also sent for inspection. This method obviates the order list, enables one to see the book, to judge of the typographical features, in addition to its literary merit, and to make comparisons, if necessary. In fact if any title is dubious the book is requested for examination. These current domestic books are supplied at the prevailing prices, in which we all fare alike; the foreign at a stipulated rate, of so many cents to the mark, franc, lira, and peseta. Among these books, however, there will always be a certain number of American editions of English books, i. e., books originally published in England and reissued in this country. As you know, Lippincott, Doubleday, Scribner, Dutton, and others are actively engaged in bringing out such books. The question of price at once arises. Is it cheaper to buy the American book which has the advantage of being at hand or to import the English book with a delay of five weeks? There is no guide to this knowledge save a comparison of prices and the English bibliographies are consulted for the information. It is not found cheaper in every case to import the English edition, but it is in the majority of cases.

For example, of 28 books, all American editions of English publications received at the library within the last two weeks, six were in effect as low priced, or slightly lower, than the English edition, with the shilling reckoned at 23 cents on the list price, which includes all expense. The remaining 22, however, could be imported at a saving of nearly \$6. The Macmillans, for instance, publish the series of "English men of letters" at 75 cents a volume in this country, or 68 cents to libraries. They publish the same book in London for 2s., or 18 cents less than it can be bought here. The editions are practically the same, possibly the paper in the English edition is of a little better quality. When an order in this series is for 10 copies for the branches, we order them from London and save \$1.80. It is not the single instance which counts for so much, but in the course of a year a careful comparison of prices in these international editions and then consequent ordering has a distinct economical effect on the book funds.

As to auction catalogues. In the large book centers — Boston,

New York, Philadelphia — there is on an average a daily sale from October to July. The library receives the catalogues, checks them, determines the bids for such books as it may require, and in all important sales sends an employee to represent it. In minor sales outside of Boston the bids are sent to an agent. But if it is possible the books are examined before they are bought. A book or a broadside may be enticingly cataloged, but a personal examination will often reveal grave defects. In determining prices to be offered, which calls for a special sense of commercial values, the records of previous book sales are referred to, also the indexed catalogues of the great booksellers, such as Bernard Quaritch.

The priced catalogues of remainders and second-hand books afford, however, opportunities common to all of us. They range from juvenile fiction at 15 cents a volume to the bibliographical rarity at thousands of dollars. They frequently contain such good books at such low prices that the librarian forgets his grievance on account of the limited discount on new publications and turns his attention to the book which has survived a year, or a hundred years. From them is often obtained the book which was lost at the auction. For instance, a somewhat rare old book which the library wished to possess brought \$190 at a New York auction not long ago, a price which made it prohibitive to us. A few months later a good copy of the same book was bought from a second-hand London catalogue for \$80. Another book published last November, Furnival's "Decorative tiles", at six pounds and six shillings or \$31.50, which was not bought then on account of the price, has just been obtained from a remainder catalogues for \$8. These, of course, are extreme examples, but they are fresh at hand. Books from these sources are ordered without delay. If rare, important, costly and from a foreign source, the order is cabled direct to the bookseller. Scattering and minor orders are sent to an agent, who collects and forwards the books and charges them on his account at a fixed commission. This refers to foreign dealers. The popular American lists and catalogues are used as far as possible to replenish the needs of the branches, and they frequently catalogue desirable books at a low price, especially books of reference.

We have found less use for fiction catalogues since some of the Boston booksellers have begun to keep in regular stock good, well bound volumes of popular fiction, such as Crawford, Henty, Booth Tarkington, etc., which they sell to libraries for 45 cents a volume, all fresh copies. The auction room and the clearance sale both

present their spectacular bargains, but after all they are incidental and unbalanced means of obtaining books, and the library has to depend on the established bookseller for the great bulk of those which must be bought from week to week. Most of the domestic books are bought of Boston booksellers, the French and German through a foreign agency in Boston, which secures weekly or semi-weekly shipments, the English direct from London, the non-current German direct from Leipzig, each book with the limit of price named in the order. The London and Leipzig books are forwarded through an international express company, which attends to the clearance at the custom house. So far as is consistent with good service, the orders are consolidated to secure the benefit of rates and discounts. I think I have outlined the general methods of buying in this library. Among minor things, it discourages the book agent, avoids the subscription book, does not send out competitive lists, and does not buy of the department store. It aims to keep on good terms with the bookseller and its reasonable ambition may be paraphrased from the motto of the American Library Association, as being to obtain "the greatest number of books for the largest number of readers at the lowest cost" *).

Prices of European books.

Book buyers who place their orders in Europe have experienced many surprises within the past year. The post war period of striking variations in the prices of different countries has largely passed away.

The rehabilitation of the German mark not only makes impossible the astonishing bargains which prevailed when the mark's value was reckoned in thousands and even millions to a dollar, but the costs of printing in Germany together with the strict regulations of the Börsenverein have now increased German prices to a level a little higher than the world market.

The recent action of the French Syndicat des Librairies et Editeurs in enforcing an artificial value of four cents to the franc has prevented a collapse in book prices and in the case of technical and scientific books registered an advance, not, however, to the level of book prices in England and Germany.

*) **Macurdy, Thedosia.** Methods of book buying. Library journal, 31: 44 45, 1906. Miss **Macurdy** is head of the order department, Boston Public Library.

French books are probably the cheapest in the world. French library binding is also much cheaper than in the United States.

English prices have not advanced sharply but there has been a marked deterioration in the grade of paper used, especially in the three to five shilling books printed on paper which will stand few circulations and cannot be rebound ...

A comparison of prices for the same books charged by responsible foreign agents and by American importers is illuminating. American publishing importers, who bring out in America over their own imprint books which had previously been printed in Great Britain, frequently offer large enough discounts to enable libraries to buy the text at better rates in America than in England.

American libraries which order English titles abroad without taking the trouble to compare prices are oftentimes losing money and unless there is some special reason for desiring English "firsts" it is often cheaper to buy the same book in the United States, provided that the discount allowed by the American importing company is a large one.

The price of German periodical sets is well known to all university libraries. Prices have been stimulated by a number of causes. The periodicals of the Union List with the consequent attempt of American libraries to complete their files has also had a violent effect upon prices.

English periodical prices also are advancing and it is next to impossible to acquire old files at any reasonable cost at all. Italian booksellers have a good stock of periodical sets and proceedings of learned societies. The paper and oftentimes the binding is not particularly good. Illustrations also do not compare in general with most of the more northerly European countries. There is little trouble in securing reasonable quotations upon almost any set desired.

In general, it may be said that if an American library can obtain a responsible foreign agent who is honest and reliable, it is worth while finding out what he will charge for books offered by American importers. It may mean considerable saving; there may be no difference, and in the case of the importing publishers, there may be an advantage in ordering at home.

The routine involved in clearing foreign shipments is not onerous. A number of customs house agents specialize in library business, clearing packages properly and at reasonable charges.

Carrying charges are something which need to be taken into consideration. It is necessary to find out rates for both freight and parcel post. Freight charges from some of the tax-ridden European countries are enormous, carrying charges and consular fees on foreign shipments sometimes amount to half the value of the books themselves. This would not have been the case had the package been sent by post *).

The office of Superintendent of Documents.

The functions of the Documents Office have been outlined in other papers read before your Association, and in our annual reports, but nevertheless there still exists some misunderstanding as evidenced by the hearings before the House Committee on Education in the 68th Congress on the proposed bill for a Library Information Service in which the only functions mentioned are the sale and distribution of government publications.

In order to prevent further misconception, it seems advisable again to outline briefly the duties of our office, which can be summarized as follows:

1. Selling government publications at prices covering the cost of printing, plus 10 per cent.
2. Distributing publications to depository libraries and mailing for the departments publications sent out on their order to libraries and others.
3. Compiling a monthly catalogue and a biennial catalogue, covering all government publications, and a document index, covering the numbered documents and reports of each session of Congress.
4. Receiving all accumulations of government publications from the Departments and annually taking over their surplus for distribution or sale.
5. Compiling bibliographies and price lists of government publications.
6. Maintaining a library of all government publications.

*) **Cannon, Carl L.** Buying books for public libraries in Europe. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 20: 526-28.

Mr. Cannon is head of the order department, New York Public Library.

7. Maintaining a reference catalogue containing general and specific information concerning the work and publications of the government departments.

8. Conducting a voluminous correspondence on all the above-mentioned subjects.

Duties 1 to 4 are specifically imposed upon the office by law. The others have been found to be inseparable adjuncts.

Although there is no specific authorization of law for a library and a reference catalogue, it was soon recognized that without these working tools the accomplishment of the routine work imposed by the law would be as difficult as to steer a ship into port without a rudder.

The library now contains three hundred and seventy-five thousand books, pamphlets, and maps. The reference catalogue contains about two hundred and forty thousand cards, including author, series, subject and title entries and many notes.

The office publishes forty-six current price lists, which cover a wide range of subjects and are revised at short intervals . . .

Teachers, publicists and scientific investigators often call upon us to furnish bibliographies on special subjects; a teacher may wish a list of all that has been published by the government on the subject of secondary education; a publicist or bibliographer desires a list of publications on taxation; a technical man requests a list on electricity, etc. The preparation of these lists requires considerable research work, in addition to a general knowledge which can be gained only thru experience and long study of government publications, as the real subjects and substance of many publications do not appear in their titles. Most finding lists, indexes, etc., however, are based upon these titles as they appear on the title-page.

Another class of inquiries necessitates knowledge of Government bureaus and their activities. We are frequently asked for information as to which bureaus would be likely to make investigations along certain lines and publish reports thereon. In such cases a correct answer often depends upon a thoro knowledge of special activities of bureaus whose work, to the casual observer, seems to overlap that of other bureaus.

The law provides for free distribution of government publications to depository libraries, and as the law now stands, we receive of new publications only a sufficient number of copies for the regular depository libraries, which are entitled to receive practically all publications printed that are of a public character.

This leaves the other libraries — the non-depository libraries — dependent upon the issuing offices for the new publications.

Altho the issuing offices are, under existing conditions, the proper source of supply for the non-depository libraries, I do not want to discourage librarians from applying to the Documents Office, because we are desirous of aiding all libraries by supplying publications without charge whenever possible, or by referring their requests to the proper issuing offices where the publications can be obtained free.

The *Monthly Catalogue* is issued during the month following its date. It includes all the publications that have been actually received, and its descriptions are minute and accurate.

The *Document Index*, which indexes the Congressional reports and documents, is issued by sessions.

The *Document Catalogue* for the 65th Congress, 1917-19, which covers the war period and includes over sixty thousand cards, many including more than one entry, is more than one-half in type and progressing rapidly (1925).

The selective privilege granted the depository libraries nearly three years ago I am confident has met with universal approval. It denies nothing to the large libraries that want everything but relieves the smaller libraries of an unbearable burden that was imposed by compelling them to accept all publications . . . I can not but entertain the opinion that some libraries are today receiving publications for which they have no need. For that reason I wish to impress upon librarians that the purpose of the selective privilege is being defeated unless they cause periodical examinations to be made in order that previous selections might be cancelled where the publications are found to be of no value, so as to eliminate any waste that results from a continued distribution of similar publications.

The question has often been asked: If a depository library should elect to receive all publications, would it receive everything printed? The answer is: No. Under the provisions of existing law, where department requisitions are marked "confidential" or "for official use" the public printer is not permitted to print the library editions.

The circulation of publications received by depositories is another question on which it might be well to state the position of the office. The law is not explicit on this point, and altho it was once held by a former superintendent that they should not be loaned,

the present administration stands for the widest use possible, and believes they may be circulated like other books . . .

I need not assure your committee of the earnest desire on the part of this office to co-operate to the fullest possible extent with the good work that the libraries of the country are doing in advancing the intelligence of the people whose will is the foundation of our government *).

International exchanges.

The International Exchange Service of the United States is under the direction of the Smithsonian Institution, and was originally inaugurated for the purpose of transmitting publications presented by institutions and individuals in the United States to correspondents abroad, in exchange for like contributions from such recipients, as one of the most efficient means for the "diffusion of knowledge among men" . . .

The packages are sent direct from this country to the one for which they are intended, and from long experience this has been found to be the quickest and most satisfactory method. During the last year nearly two thousand boxes were shipped in this way without the loss of a single consignment. Shipments are made regularly at least once a month, should the sending be but one package, and to the larger countries every week.

A card index is kept of all correspondents, and upon these cards are recorded the packages sent and received by each institution and individual. There are now in the United States 3,000 institutions and 8,000 individuals recorded in this index, while the foreign institutions number 16,500 and individuals 34,232. A list of the foreign societies and institutions is published from time to time under the title of "International exchange list" . . .

The scientific institutions and societies of each country should examine the workings of the International Exchange system, and solicit exchange of publications from like societies abroad, using the service as a medium of transmission **).

*) **Tisdal, Alton P.** The Office of Superintendent of Documents. Library journal 50: 987-90, 1925.

Mr. **Tisdal** is superintendent of documents.

) **Brockett, Paul. International exchanges, Library journal, 35: 435-37, 1910.

D. BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Bibliography in the United Staates.

The twentieth century is here, and "the librarian of the future" has arrived. He confronts the vast task of the handling of books, books, in yearly increasing numbers, the world over, and without end. The problem of record, and still more of selection, becomes more difficult and serious every year; and thus bibliography, and notably "evaluated" bibliography, becomes more and more important.

I have been asked to present a summary of the present state of bibliography in our own country, which may be of service at this time, on an occasion which is of more than passing scope and interest. I shall not endeavor to go over the field covered in my paper on "Bibliographical endeavors in America", at the International Conference in London, 1897, which summarized the history of bibliography in and of this country up to 1897, but rather to present briefly the facts as to bibliographies of recent issue and current value.

The "A. L. A. catalog" of 1904*), of which the first copies are presented at this conference, renewing the similar work of 1893, published at the time of the Chicago World's Fair, should have first mention as the most practical and helpful work placed, within this period, at the service of libraries and readers. It was prepared under the general editorship of Melvil Dewey, with the help of Miss May Seymour of Albany, and Mrs. H. L. Elmendorf of Buffalo as associate editors, with the co-operation of the New York State Library and Library of Congress staffs in preparing and revising lists, and of over a hundred specialists in passing on the books to be included in the several departments, under the authorization and general oversight of the Publishing Board of the American Library Association, with the Government Printing Office as printer, and the Library of Congress as publisher — a happy conjunction which has resulted in a volume of about 900 pages, cataloguing, with notes, 8.000 volumes best suited for a popular library. A copy will be sent

*) New edition, 1926.

gratuitously to each library in the country, and copies may be had by individuals from the Superintendent of Documents at Washington at the extraordinary price of 50 cents in cloth or 25 cents in paper, for the complete work, and at a lower price for the two parts. These two parts consist respectively of a classed catalogue arranged on the Decimal system, preceded by an address list of the publishers, a list of series abbreviations, a list of authorities for notes, and a schedule of general abbreviations, and also by a synopsis of the Decimal classification, going to the third figure; and of a dictionary catalogue including designation of the Expansive classification mark for each book and of its place in the Decimal classification. It is impossible to overestimate the value of this work for libraries and for all who have reason to consult books.

The "American bibliography" of Charles Evans*), of which the first volume, covering the period 1639—1729, was published by the author in 1903, is one of the most ambitious bibliographical undertakings current in any country. It is to be "a chronological dictionary of all books, pamphlets, and periodical publications printed in the United States of America from the genesis of printing in 1639 down to and including the year 1820, with bibliographical and biographical notes". The period is limited to 1820 probably because in that year Roorbach began the bibliographical work which has since been continued in one shape or another under the editorship of James Kelly, Frederick Leyboldt, and the present writer, in the several forms of the American Catalogue. Mr. Evans in this first volume records in chronological order, and so numbered, 3244 items of the work of our American printers, including even books of which no issues are now known to exist, but of which trace is somewhere found; and gives in the case of unique or rare issues very full descriptive and bibliographical notes. There is an endeavor to cite auction prices, so far as practicable, which, if not always accurate, are indicative of value. An index of authors, a classified subject-index of a limited nature, and a list of printers and publishers supplement the main part of the volume. The work has been severely criticised by bibliographical scholars for inaccuracies and omissions, and for lack of research in large and representative collections; but much is to be forgiven in an undertaking so vast, and on the whole so satisfactory. Its importance is such that it should be found in all national libraries and in every important library the world over.

*) Set not yet completed, 9 vols, issued, 1639-1794, 1926.

Of the monumental work of Joseph Sabin, "Dictionary of books relating to America", or "Bibliotheca Americana", — of which the publication was begun in 1868, and which was left unfinished at his death in 1881 — nineteen completed volumes have now been published, covering the alphabet from A to Simms, and two additional parts, nos, 115-116, covering Simms-Smith (Henry Hollingsworth). Mr. Wilburforce Eames, who has been the general editor since Mr. Cutter's relations with the earlier volumes, does not find himself able to add to his burdens as a librarian the work of continuing this series, and although much material for the remainder of the alphabet has been accumulated, the completion of the work cannot be said to be assured.

The quarto series of the "American catalogue" *), originated by Frederick Leypoldt in 1876 and continued under the editorship of the present writer, approximately in five-yearly volumes, came to an end with the volume covering the period July 1, 1895 — Jan. 1, 1900. The original volumes, covering books in print in 1876, were published in quarto size, partly because the large editorial and publishing outlay demanded a form which would seem to justify the price necessarily charged for the volumes. But the size proved cumbersome for general use, and with the close of the century it was decided to begin another series in another form. It may be interesting to note that the total outlay on the original two-volume work was \$ 27,622, without compensation to its editor, and the return \$ 27,321, a loss of \$ 301; while the expense of the succeeding two volumes, 1876-84 and 1884-90, has been \$ 23,258, and the returns \$ 28,928, a gain of \$ 4,770; and the expense of the final two volumes, 1890-95 and 1895-1900, has been \$ 26,645 and the returns \$ 22,461, a loss of \$ 4,184. Thus a total expense exceeding \$ 76,000 has been almost exactly balanced by the returns, with no or little reckoning either of interest on investment or return to editor and publisher. Except for the fact that the editions of the first volume of the 1876 work, of which 1,000 copies were printed, and the supplementary volumes for 1876-84 and 1884-90, of each of which 1,000 copies were issued, were by persistent "pushing" completely sold, permitting a substantial increase of price as the volumes were running out of print, the loss would have been serious, as was in fact the case on the Subject-volume of 1876 and the volumes 1890-95 and 1895-1900, of each of which 1250

*) Discontinued with vol. 8, 1910.

copies were printed, but the entire edition was not sold. The last-named volume involved a maximum loss of nearly \$3,000, probably owing in part to the division of the field by an enterprise covering in some measure the same period. These figures show the limitations of the bibliographical market and the difficulty of obtaining a commercial basis for bibliographical work in this country. I may say here that Mr. Evan's undertaking will make unnecessary the scheme of publishing a volume of the quarto American Catalogue series, to comprise books published within the nineteenth century previous to those included in Mr. Leypoldt's monumental work of 1876; as a preliminary to the greater undertaking of publishing a comprehensive bibliography of American books of the nineteenth century on the quarto American Catalogue plan. Both these projects would have involved so much outlay above any possible return, that it is a relief to find such a bibliographer as Mr. Evans ready to cover the only part of this field in which there is a serious gap. The new American Catalogue series is planned to be in five-yearly cumulative volumes, in a one-alphabet entry by author, title, subject, and series, comprehending the material of the Publisher's Weekly monthly record as cumulated quarterly and yearly; and the plan may include a second five-yearly volume giving the full titles from the Publisher's Weekly original record. This will be a utilisation, with editorial revision, of the actual linotype "slugs" used in the Publisher's Weekly for its Weekly record of full title entries and for the condensed entries by author, title, subject, and series making up its monthly list, its quarterly cumulation, which becomes an annual cumulation in the Annual Summary number, published each January, and finally, the cumulation covering two, three, and four-year periods, issued in one alphabet pending the culmination and final five-yearly publication as the American Catalogue.

The most important comprehensive volume covering current publications is the "United States catalogue", published by the H. W. Wilson Co., of Minneapolis, originally recording books in print 1899, under the editorship of George F. Danforth and Marion E. Potter. The issue of 1899 covered 738 pages of author entry, a list of publishers, and a title index of 361 pages, in all a volume exceeding 1,100 pages, with the purpose of doing for the book-trade and libraries at the close of the century, though in condensed form, the service which Mr. Leypoldt had rendered a quarter of a century before. In this original issue author's names were given in full-face

type, with condensed single line titles of the several works arranged under the author's name, while the title index was confined to the short title with "see" author. The improved edition of 1902, edited by Marion E. Potter and brought up to January 1, 1902, presented a single alphabet system, covering 2,131 pages, with entries under author, subject, and title, including author's birth and death dates in many cases, and particulars of binding, price, date, and publisher, forming a remarkably compendious and practical volume. This had been preceded by a preliminary issue of author entries only. The catalogue is supplemented by the "Cumulative book index", which on the same system presents monthly, progressive and annual cumulations, which last are combined into a Cumulative Index for 1902-4 *), continuing the main catalogue up to date from year to year.

The "Publisher's Trade List Annual" **), which has been continuously issued since Mr. Leyboldt's beginning of the series in 1873, had been published until 1902 (except for a brief index in 1875) without an index, but the inclusion of a book index as a part of Whitaker's English "Reference list" emphasized the demand for a book index to the American publication. The great cost of such a work, and the difficulty of publishing an index without delaying the volume, as the Whitaker publication had always been delayed, had prevented such an index, until in 1902 the "Index to the Publisher's Trade List Annual", covering in a single alphabet by author, title, and subject catchword entries the books included in the volume of catalogues, was issued in a supplementary volume of 1100 pages, soon after the issue of the huge annual itself. This result was accomplished by working from the catalogues of the previous year and filling out from information furnished by publishers in advance of the new catalogues. A Supplementary Index covered the new material of 1903, and a second Supplementary Index, including in one alphabet the new material of 1903 and 1904, have since been published — this last being also issued bound up with the original Index in a single volume as the Combined Index, 1902-3-4.

In addition to editing the regular volume of "Poole's index to periodical literature" ***), covering the period 1897-1902, being the fourth volume in continuation of the reissue of 1882, Mr. W.I. Fletcher has done the excellent service of preparing in a

*) Issued monthly and complete volume for year.

**) Issued annually.

***) Discontinued 1907.

single volume an "Abridged Poole's index", which furnishes a subject-index to the leading sets of important periodicals which are to be found in most libraries, from 1815, the earliest date of their beginnings, through 1899. He has also edited for the Association a second edition of the "A. L. A. index to general literature" (1901), also known as the "Easy index", which, in a large octavo volume of 680 pages, furnishes a valuable and needed key to the essays, papers, and chapters on distinctive, specific subjects which form part of composite or general books.

The "Annual literary index", in continuation both of "Poole's Index to periodical literature" and the "A. L. A. index to general literature" *), has been continued yearly under the editorship chiefly of Mr. W. I. Fletcher, covering periodical articles, chapters in composite books, notable events and the bibliography and necrology of the year ...

I need but briefly mention that this office (Superintendent of Documents), has published a "comprehensive index" for the two-year period of each Congress from the 53rd, 1893-95, to the 56th, 1899-1901, covering the two or three sessions of each in a single volume or in two volumes, known as the "Catalogue of public documents" **), and also as a "consolidated index" for each session from the first session of the 54th Congress, 1895-96, to the second session of the 57th Congress, 1902-03, known as the "Index to subjects of documents and reports", etc., as well as a monthly "Catalogue of United States public documents", from January, 1895, to July, 1904. Besides these regular publications, it has issued priced lists of official publications on sale or for exchange, usually at intervals of about six months; priced lists of laws of the United States, usually yearly; and special bibliographies or priced lists on irrigation, labor, industries, trusts and immigration, on interoceanic canals and transcontinental traffic, on explorations, on new navy, and on agriculture; and various schedules indicating the series and volume relations of government publications. A check-list of public documents containing debates and proceedings of Congress from the first to the 53rd, is also indicated in its publications. This office also has taken a most important step in the direction of making public documents useful to depository libraries, by the issue, beginning in January of this year (1904), of printed cards, which are supplied in duplicate to such libraries.

*) Discontinued.

**) Volume 14, 1926.

In connection with which there has been printed a valuable schedule of "Author headings for United States public documents", giving an official method of classification in this difficult field.

Several of the states are giving more careful attention to the bibliography of their own publications, bibliographies of state documents having been issued by, or for, Ohio, Iowa, Kansas, and California, — the work perhaps stimulated by the "Bibliography of state publications" prepared under the editorship of the present writer, of which the parts covering the New England states and the North Central states have been issued, and of which the third part, covering the Western states, is nearly ready. Bibliographies for Vermont and Kansas, as well as an earlier bibliography for Texas, have been issued, covering, however, books printed in the state rather than by the state. The bulletins of the New York Public Library have contained interesting material relating to the boundaries, etc., of New York state. Mr. T. H. Cole has continued his bibliography of statute law and has issued schedules for Alabama, Arkansas, and Florida.

A record of the "Publications of societies" was issued in 1899, under the editorship of the present writer, but the important publication in this field will be the forthcoming "Handbook of learned societies and their publications" — to be issued by the co-operation of the Carnegie Institution and the Library of Congress ...

One of the most notable advances in American bibliography has been the better work done in supplying individual volumes with indexes, as an integral part of the work, and in supplementary indexes, printed separately. It is impracticable, however, even in a "dry-as-dust" paper like the present, to cover in detail the individual bibliographies issued in this country in recent years, of which the annual list will be found in the successive volumes of the "Annual literary index". Bibliography has perhaps taken the place of political economy as the "dismal science"; but it is a necessary evil in view of the enormous cumulation of books from year to year, and it is a problem of increasing difficulty how this record shall be provided continuously and adequately in the face of the enormous production of books with which the presses of the world are now teeming *).

*) **Bowker, Richard R.** Recent national bibliography in the United States. *Library journal*, 29: 121-25, 1903.

Mr. **Bowker** is publisher of the *Library journal*, and of books relating to bibliography.

Practical bibliography.

The practical bibliography of the United States has been done chiefly in the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*. The first and greatest work was "The American catalogue", dated 1878, which was almost five years in making. The history of that catalogue cannot be told on an evening devoted to pleasant sociability. It is written in blood in the annals of American bibliography. The catalogue aimed to include all books published in the United States which were in print and for sale to the general public on July 1, 1876. Where and what was the material for such a catalogue? Roorbach and Kelly's valuable catalogues had been given up. Roorbach was dead and Kelly disheartened by the lack of support. Trubner, of London, also was showing no sign of reviving his admirable "Guide to American literature". The impracticability of reworking this previous bibliographical material was soon realized, and it was decided to rely entirely on direct information from the publishers. Names of publishers were gathered from every discoverable source, and circulars and letters sent them over and over again. And when lists were gathered after much hard work and at great expense they were found incomplete and inaccurate beyond all imagination. The collecting and verifying of this material necessitated correspondence of appalling magnitude, and the practical bibliographer went through agonies of mind before he was finally forced to accept the records of the publishers as authoritative. The books on record in the first "American catalogue" were traced to about 900 publishers, and they necessitated upwards of 70,000 entries. Less than 25 of these entries could be made from the books themselves. Imagine the state of mind of the bibliographer: The work was begun in 1876, but it was 1880 before it was finished, and it had outrun all estimates of time and cost. It cost \$27,622.46. In December, 1886, it had all been sold except a few copies of the subject volume, many sets at double the original price, and it had brought in only \$27,321.21, a deficit of \$301.25.

At five-yearly intervals volumes of "The American catalogue" have been published, each one of which has had a history worth telling, and each one of which has led to new discoveries in practical bibliography. In 1886 it was decided to bridge over the five-yearly intervals between the "American catalogues" by "Annual catalogues" containing the full "weekly records" of the

"*Publishers' Weekly*", with descriptive notes in one alphabet and an index by author, title and subject, giving the date of publication of the title, which was approximately the date of publication of the book.

The five-yearly cumulated volume of these annual indexes was published in June of last year at great expense, and it is now proposed again to go back to the "Annual catalogues" with descriptive notices of the books, as the library constituency prefers this style.

A practical bibliographer learns to struggle with every complication, and generally finds a way out of all difficulties but one — the cost of his undertakings. More books are published each year and more and more knowledge is gained in perfecting catalogues. But the supporting constituency does not grow. It is a very serious question how long practical bibliography can hold its own except as a government institution. The great trouble is that the people who need the works produced by practical bibliography also have little money. Bookselling is almost a lost art, and libraries are not rolling in wealth, and must practically consider cost. It is against this rock of cost that the ideals and plans of practical bibliography are shattered. With the greatest ambition, the most untiring work, the most earnest desire to make every new undertaking what it ought to be, the most careful study of the latest knowledge available, a bibliographer must fall short of his hopes and dreams *).

*) **Leypoldt, Augusta.** Practical bibliography; notes on the making of printed book lists. Library journal, 34 : 306-07, 1906.

LIBRARY BINDING.

The fundamental process of binding has not changed much since the time when the first paper books were bound. Changes in economic conditions, however, have modified the process. By way of contrast books are now bound in the most practical way, — little attention is given to the element of beauty, or craft. Now many different grades of paper, cloth, and leather are employed, some good, but much of only temporary value. On account of the great demand for books machines are used exclusively for commercial work.

When good materials are used throughout there is not much fault to find with machine binding. On the other hand, given poor materials, the best hand binder can not make substantial bindings. Artistic hand binding, craft work, such as was done when books were treasured more highly than they are today, is now almost a thing of the past.

The most careful library binders examine each book for rebinding, re-enforce the weak sheets, and sew the sections either by machine, by hand, or oversee the back as occasion demands. Tapes may or may not be used, depending upon the size and condition of the volume.

Report of A. L. A. Committee on binding, 1914.

Specifications for commercial work.
To the Publishers:

On account of the widespread complaint that the modern commercial methods of binding books are not satisfactory from the standpoint of use in public libraries, the Committee on binding of the American Library Association has investigated the question with a view of submitting specifications for binding which would add but little to the cost of any book, but which would add greatly to its serviceability.

The responsibility for poor binding seems to rest with the publishers. The binders have sufficient knowledge, use up-to-date machinery, and in most cases would prefer to do creditable work.

On account of the pressure which publishers have brought to bear on them, however, prices have been reduced to such an extent that binders have been obliged to slight their work in order to compete with other binders. Moreover, most publishers take no interest in the process of binding, and in asking for bids, make no specifications other than the color and the quality of cloth, and the nature of decorative design to be used. From the standpoint of serviceability these are the least important items, and the binder is left free to use poor thread, poor glue, poor back-lining paper; wide opportunity is given to cheapen the work all along the line. The result may be seen in every public library in the country, where all cloth bound books must be withdrawn from circulation and sent to the bindery when they have been in the hands of less than 20 readers. Larger books of travel, history, etc., can seldom be issued more than ten times before being rebound, and it is not uncommon to have them part from the covers before being in the hands of five readers.

It is admitted that a fixed standard of binding for all books is impossible since books vary so much in quality of paper, in size, in thickness and number of signatures, but it should be the duty of publishers when asking for bids to take these matters into account, since the serviceability of books is so vitally affected. A rebound book is much less attractive than one in the original cover, and an unattractive book in a public library is as much to the detriment of the publisher as it is to the library.

Paper. (a) Thick heavily loaded or spongy papers should never be used for books that are likely to receive service in public libraries. While there may be many exceptions, it may be confidently stated that a 70 pound, 24×36 paper, folded with the grain, should give the best results.

b) Most books should be printed on signatures of not more than 16 pages. Thin, light-weight paper sometimes works well in 32 page sections, but 64 pages should never be used.

(c) Illustrations should, if possible, be printed on a tough paper with inside margin wide enough to allow folding around the adjoining signature. If illustrations are printed on brittle paper they should be guarded with tough thin paper and the guard either folded around and sewed through, or folded over and pasted to adjoining signature.

Sewing. (a) Ordinary machine sewing should be used. Books weighing over two pounds should be sewed on tapes, but not through them.

(b) Use 4 cord best quality cotton thread. Size of the thread depends upon the size of the book, quality of paper thickness, and number of sections. Thread used on the ordinary novel of 350 to 500 pages should have a tensile strength of at least $7\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, when tested double with a thread tester.

(c) As many stitches as the back of the book will allow should always be used. They should not be more than one inch apart and should come within three fourths ($\frac{3}{4}$) of an inch of the head and tail.

Since there has recently appeared a statement from a library binder that leather was the proper material with which to bind all books, no matter how they were to be used, it seems only fair that librarians should know exactly the recommendations of the binding committee on this important point. The recommendations advocated by the committee can be summed in three brief rules:

1. Always use leather on books which are to receive hard usage.
2. Never use leather on books which will seldom be used.
3. In case of doubt give preference to cloth.

It follows from these rules that fiction and juvenile books should be bound in leather, except in localities where experience has demonstrated that cloth is better. In view of the experience of many libraries during the last ten years, there is no doubt in the minds of the committee but that leather is best for such books, and that a good grade of cowhide is good enough for this purpose.

Reference books, especially those which are heavy, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, etc., should, of course, be bound in leather.

It follows, furthermore, from these rules that practically all periodicals should be bound in cloth. There are very few libraries in which the use of bound periodicals for reference purposes justifies binding them in leather. There may be a large use of periodicals as a whole, but the use that any one volume will have year in and year out is very slight. Since the cloth which meets the specifications of the Bureau of Standards has been on the market librarians have had at their disposal a material which, in view of the tests made before the specifications were drawn up, can almost be guaranteed to last as long as posterity will wish it to. We know that cloth which is very inferior in quality has been on the backs of books for over seventy years and is still in excellent condition. It is reasonable, therefore, to suppose that cloth made according to these specifications will last practically forever in the temperate zone.

While we know this about cloth we cannot be equally sure that leather will last nearly as long. We know positively that leather which is not free from acid is sure to deteriorate under conditions which will be found in all libraries. We know that leather free from acid will last much longer, but how much longer is a matter of conjecture. Furthermore, it has been discovered that in many cases leathers which have been advertised to be free from acid have been found on analysis to contain as high as one per cent of free sulphuric acid.

There is no question but that a leather-bound book has a much better appearance than one bound in cloth, but in view of the facts the Committee on Binding believes that the use of leather, except on books much used, is to be strongly condemned *).

Recommendation of A. L. A. Committee, 1922.

Paper. — The quality of paper for reference books or other large volumes is of first importance, satisfactory binding being largely dependent on suitable paper. A desirable paper for such books is a light weight stock of firm, yet flexible quality, not highly calendered, but which takes illustrations well if illustrations are to be used. Inner margins should be not less than three-fourths of an inch in depth, and outer margins not less than five-eighths of an inch.

Sewing. — Signatures should be composed of eight leaves, sixteen pages. The Smythe machine is commonly employed for sewing books of the type under consideration. Attention is directed, however, to the feasibility of the use of the oversewing machine, rapidly coming into use among binders doing work for libraries, and which produces an ideal sewing for large books having constant use ...

A first class grade of cotton thread should be used. The Intrinsic, Lock's and Myer's are three good makes. For the average sized book a No. 16 for the upper thread and No. 20 for the lower are commonly used.

Lining, Rounding and Backing. — A good lining is made from a rather light grade of canton flannel, cut to cover the back

*) A. L. A. Committee on Binding. Binding recommendations. Library journal, 39: 31, 1914.

of the book to within one-fourth inch of top and bottom, and extending over on each side one-and-a-half inches. After rounding and backing, the backs of the books are given a thin coat of flexible glue, and the strips of canton flannel are pasted and applied with the nap side to the backs while the glue is fresh. A soft, though strong grade of sateen or muslin may be used for lining instead of canton flannel. Super is entirely inadequate.

Joints. — The lining thus adheres firmly to the back of the book; the part extending one-and-a-half inches on each side is pasted to the continuous end paper of some subdued tint, — a tan kraft or soft gray, — which has been striped along the fold with a strong, although never stiff nor heavy muslin, thus making a double cloth joint which is entirely concealed when the book is finished. The cover is fastened to the book by means of the end papers, which are securely pasted in place with special care as to joints.

Boards. — The best quality of cloth board should be used, suited in weight to the size and weight of the book.

Cover Cloth. — Serviceable shades of buckram are the Holliston No. 91 (dark blue), and No. 92 (dark green); and the Interlaken No. 305 (maroon), No. 307 (dark blue), No. 309 (dark green), and No. 320 (green).

Pressing. — Books should remain in press not less than twelve hours, — twenty-four hours is better, — or until thoroughly dry.

Finishing. — All finishing should be done in XXD gold leaf*).

Administration of library binding.

The most successful administration of a library's binding department requires recognition of two very important and fundamental business principles that are often overlooked, and more waste may be traced to the failure of observing these almost obvious economic features than to the patronage of any number of unsatisfactory binders. These two elements of success are: first, a thorough standardization of materials and methods, and second, a proper classification of the material to be bound, such a classification to be based upon the use, location, and value of the

*) A. L. A. Committee on Bookbinding. Binding specifications for strong edition work; books of the reference type: A. L. A. Bulletin, 46: 472, 1922.

volumes to be treated. In consideration of this theory we may almost overlook those causes of general complaint, such as the poor quality of paper and publisher's bindings, or even the unwarranted trimming and wholesale treatment that is characteristic of many so-called "library" binders; for the first we are unable to control and the second may be regulated by the scheme outlined herewith to such a degree that the element of dissatisfaction may be greatly minimized, if not entirely obviated. Scientific direction makes it possible to use to advantage many of the methods that at present we are almost inclined to label as "shoemaking". Laced, or French joints cases, tight backs or loose backs, sewing on sunken cord, sewing on tapes, straight sewing, and oversewing are all meritorious processes, but the exclusive adaptation of either alternative is a disastrous rut for any library to follow. Yet that is pretty much the situation to-day as revealed by the bindings on the shelves of a dozen of our leading libraries.

The number of colors for bindings should be few but strong in character, so that dark blue, for example, indicates definitely one exact shade, whether referring to a cloth or to a leather. Fancies or æsthetic delights deserve scant attention, if such selections suggest a multiplicity of rainbow effects, for thus the whole scheme of standardization is disrupted, since the term standardization includes the idea of perpetuity, and we cannot be sure that every shade can be produced or even matched indefinitely. The necessary idea of stability and the certainty that cloth has this lasting quality to a greater degree than any leather determines that the color scheme must have its basis in some one line of book cloths, such as the library buckram produced by the Holliston Mills.

For leathers a library should consider only two or three, namely: Turkey morocco, Niger morocco, and Scotch pigskin. Since the colors of pigskin are not dependable except in the naturals and the browns, this leather should be adopted only as supplementary. Contrary to what many leather dealers or bookbinders may say, perhaps because they do not handle the leather, it is quite safe to trust to the qualities of Niger morocco. Turkey morocco has been the only leather to give uniform satisfaction for a long term of years, while other leathers have been only relatively satisfactory because of rapid disintegration after a short period of disuse of the books thus bound. The more recently introduced Niger morocco gives every evidence, however, of equalling the fine qualities of Turkey morocco, and costs several

cents less per foot. Since the nature of this article will not permit any adequate discussion of the relative values of materials, for the purposes of this discussion, please accept the standardized selections herewith, made as a result of the suggested research and comparison:

<i>Leather</i>	<i>Cloth</i>
Niger morocco matching	Holliston Library buckram.
Dark red	No. 26
Light red	399
Dark blue	91
Dark green	92
Dark brown	405
Light brown	43
Olive	15
Black (green-black)	75

With these colors of leather and cloth it is possible to match with reasonable satisfaction almost any number of old colors used, except for the old sheep binding. For this purpose natural pigskin serves best, and may be matched by Holliston Library buckram 396.

The style of type is another important feature to be considered. Too often have the binders been permitted to use their own taste, with the result that legibility is often interfered with. The old school binder practiced this little trick to insure the retention of the binding of future volumes of sets belonging to a library or to an individual patron; he would include in one title three or four styles as well as sizes of type. Frequently this result was a violation to artistic display as well as to the desirability of simplicity. Good type costs a lot of money (about eight cents per type letter), so that the judicious sprinkling of a dozen styles of letters over as many sets of volumes would be difficult for a better binder, perhaps, to match without a further equipment of type than would have been necessary otherwise.

The interior treatment and selection of materials must be determined by each library and binder interested, although designed end-papers are recommended, since the figures hide the ugliness of the "turning", the tapes, and the lining cloth. While not attempting to discuss the relative merits of case binding with the laced binding, it might be well to state that any volume bound in full cloth should never be of the "laced in" style.

An ordinary classification of binding is simply the division of new binding from rebinding, and while new binding, because it usually includes more difficult collation, averages a slightly higher rate of cost, this division is not important except as a matter of

library record. A classification based upon the use, location, and value of individual titles, calling for four grades or qualities of work, is decidedly important. The principle of economy lies simply in the proper distribution of the total bulk of binding over those four qualities of work. Obviously, if the character of a large portion of the total binding of a library can be cared for satisfactorily at a cheaper rate than is absolutely demanded for a few volumes, it is a waste to select the superior grade simply for the sake of having uniformly fine bindings. The four degrees of quality that are usually determined at a glance, together with the probable per cent. that each class forms of the library's total binding, may best be represented by the following outline:

<i>Class</i>	<i>Designation</i>	<i>% of total</i>	<i>Binding</i>
1	Reference books Valuable books	10-15 %	1/2 leather best character of binding
2	Serials and continuations, literary or indexed in serial bibliographies Reputable works not in constant demand	20-40 %	full buckram. good work careful collation careful trimming sew straight.
3 (a)	Serials, obviously of less worth than above, trade in character, and use principally current	30-65 %	(a) full buckram
(b)	Works of ordinary value		(b) full buckram
(c)	Popular books		(c) 1/2 leather, cheaper work, may be oversewed and trimmed, durability chief requisite.

Many public libraries might determine that a considerable portion of class 2 could be dropped into class 3, because the general nature of the collection and the demands upon it would not require careful preservation of some bibliographic features that constitute items of distinct value in a university library. It is by no means uncommon, nor is it evidence of thoughtlessness or bad policy, to find in certain library stocks valuable sets and works that have been bound very plainly, but in adopting this policy care must be taken that a cheaper binding for such material is not the sort that injures the books to the extent of robbing them of various bibliographic values. It has been determined by bibliophiles more or less definitely just how much worth may be attached to original bindings, uncut leaves, or any other items that may be characteristic of any particular edition. While this value is chiefly sentimental,

the recognition of it has a slight economic bearing, in that any treatment which reduces that theoretical value also reduces the value of the collection. One authority states that trimming more than $1/64$ of an inch from the top of a book takes off 50 per cent. of its edition value. If this assertion is true, there are many thousands of volumes that have been bound for various libraries within the last few years that are now about as valuable as a scuttled ship or a tumbled-down house. The universal practice of oversewing and its attendant processes by many binders is responsible for a great deal of this.

Libraries owe a great deal to those binders who have developed methods of oversewing, because this process without doubt offers the most durable results, but this desired durability should be restricted to that class of books which demands it. In producing this binding the binders have made good, but the librarian has listened too long to their advice and has done too little investigation of the results if he permits the universal practice of this style of binding for his library. The process of oversewing usually requires cutting off the back of the books, taking away an eighth of an inch of the inner margin. The smooth back is then coated lightly with glue, and when dry, the book is separated into arbitrary signatures, which are perforated along a line an eighth of an inch further into this inner margin. After the volume has been sewed and has reached the forwarding process each of the other margins is trimmed smooth. The page has now been trimmed on all four edges, and because of a usual slight unevenness in the perforation and the nature of the sewing involved the edges of the sections are not aligned as evenly as is common with straight sewed books. For that reason the trimming of the outer edges is nearly double the amount that would be necessary to give the straight sewed book the proper finished appearance. The straight sewed books require the preservation of the original signatures, the number of pages of which are supposedly consistent with the weight and quality of the paper, while the oversewing process permits, at the point of the arbitrary division into sections, a regular variation from that number. A twelve-page signature book may thus be redivided into sixteen or eighteen page sections, although theoretically this never happens without intention. Whatever discussion may arise about this point, libraries may be sure that the usual result is a gain in the strength of binding, but that added strength is not always needed, nor is it desired, if the volume is

a valuable one. The oversewing process is characteristic of cheaper bindings because it is labor saving; the actual time for sewing takes longer, as the binder will state, but the difference is more than made up by the time that is saved in the mending and reinforcements required on the back of the signatures, if treated in the orthodox way. That is why so many binders prefer to oversee every book they bind. The conclusion or recommendation set forth, however, should appease both this type of binder and the fastidious librarian. It is as follows: Give to those first that have the best methods of oversewing all of the library's binding that would fall in the class numbered 3 in the classification given herewith. The more valuable material is probably worthy of a more careful treatment, and seldom demands any elements of durability not consistent with the most orthodox binding*).

Artistic binding.

The steady growth of general interest in fine bookbinding is a very significant factor in the present development of the craft; significant, and satisfactory. The collector is no longer the sole patron of the binder, who has come to count in his year's work a large proportion of orders from persons who find the possession of a few hand bound books a luxury, and who consequently give careful thought to every purchase.

The early eighties of the last century saw established a brilliant era in the craft of bookbinding, and mark the beginning of what may be termed the modern school. Cuzin, Jolly, Ruban, Mercier, are only a few of the men who were maintaining in France the standard of superb technique that Trantz had revived. Already Miss Prideaux had proven a worthy successor to Mary Collet, and Bedford, Zaehndorf and Riviere were producing work of fine technical skill. Also, two distinctly new styles of decoration were in process of development. One, in France, by Marius-Michel; the other in England, by Cobden-Sanderson. These two men were at the threshold of their careers. The former had the advantage of a score of years, not in age, but in training, and the further

*) **Ayer, Thomas P.** Administration of library binding. Library journal, 39 : 28-30
1914.

Mr. Ayer is librarian of the Richmond Public Library.

advantage of inheritance, his father being one of the foremost binders of his day ...

The Grolier Club, founded in 1884, numbered among its members most of the men who collected bindings. And at that time the collections, since grown so famous, and in many instances scattered again under the auctioneer's hammer, were in the making. To the influence of this club may be attributed the first interest in America in fine bindings. The group of men whose love of books brought about this organization were keen in the pursuit of new treasures ...

The founding of Doves Bindery in London removed Cobden-Sanderson from the amateurs and made it possible for him to give his patrons a supply of his bindings in better proportion to their demand. This was followed in a few years by the establishment in New York of the Club Bindery, the stock of which was owned by members of the Grolier Club. Here the highest class of French skilled labor produced works that were marvels of technical excellence. The workmen came out of the best Paris ateliers, and all the equipment was imported, like the labor. The Club Bindery was short lived; a decade saw it come and go, and I think its failure lay in its limitations. The output went almost completely to the collectors who owned the stock, the individual buyer having no part in its maintenance. But tho it is now entirely of the past, this bindery was of incalculable importance to the American binders and their workmen, who saw the fine tooling those Frenchmen were capable of doing, and learned many a salutary lesson of the value of technique.

If an old print of a medieval bindery were compared to a photograph of one of the small workshops in which hand binding only is done, a great similarity would be found in the essential points. The presses, the sewing bench, the stamps for decoration, and many of the tools are much the same as the early craftsmen evolved. One would suppose that this established standard would make it easy to buy all necessary outfit; but, on the contrary, here in America, owing to the prevailing use of machinery, the hand binder found it very difficult, until within the last few years, to equip a workshop with the required tools. Some important tools and most materials must still be imported, and only a few dealers will trouble to keep them in stock. To establish a bureau of information and mutual help, the Guild of Book-Workers was organized four years ago and has proved of great value. A binder member of this guild

had the enterprise to start a little shop in which all materials and many tools are offered for sale.

Apart from the excellence of their work, the amateurs are a very potent factor in the present development of binding — primarily because they see with a trained eye; and this training has included a study of styles and of periods. Their work in design has been chiefly in its application to book decoration, hence their criticism is intelligent and their appreciation counts. Moreover, during their novitiate, they have, consciously or not, educated a certain number of friends in fine bookmaking — people perhaps who had never before given much thought to the actual making of a book; who had been content to go into a shop and buy a good commercial edition of a favorite author, quite indifferent to the treasures of printing and binding that shop might contain. When they see the work actually done, and have listened to an exposition of the various processes by an enthusiast, they become keen to see and to know more of the fascinating handicraft of binding, and this awakened interest becomes in time the intelligent appreciation which is the noteworthy feature of our present exhibitions*).

Better made and more attractive books; Report of A. L. A. Committee.

It is evident that the Committee must recognise three distinct types of persons: (1) the book-makers as represented by the publisher, the printer and the binder; (2) the distributors of the books as represented by the bookseller and the librarian, and (3) the users of books as represented by the book buyer and the library patron. The interests of all are closely related. The publisher will not issue books he cannot sell nor can the printer and binder continue books at a loss. The book-seller must be able to sell at a reasonable profit the books produced, and the librarian must be able to get them at prices within his institutional resources. The book buyer likewise must be able to buy the book he admires as a piece of good making or be able to have access to it in a library which does have the means to buy it.

There are also very evidently two kinds of public to consider: (1) the discriminating public, which sees in the book a work of art

*) **Preston, Emily.** Modern tendencies in bookbinding. Independent, 69: 4266-71.

which is, to a great degree, enjoyable in proportion as it is well made in accordance with artistic principles, and (2) the mass of readers to whom typographic art is not a matter of as much moment as is something to read. Until library resources are much more generally distributed in more adequate amounts the question of getting books at all is likely to loom larger than getting only those of pleasing appearance. One member of the Committee, Miss Barrette, stresses the point that most exhibits of good printing, as shown in the books included, stress the exceptional successes rather than the effects to be produced within a moderate price range. Their appeal is, consequently, much less than it should be. It is encouraging that the recent traveling exhibit of the American Institute of Graphic Arts included a very fair number of inexpensive books quite within the reach of the average library. Several of these were admirable models for library publications.

Fortunately there is no essential conflict between the two types of appeal or the two publics. The phrase, "of permanent importance", is very elastic in its interpretation. It includes both cheap and expensive books. It ranges from the *World Almanac* to Morison's ponderous folios of typographic models. Even cheap books can be made to look better than most of them do. A knowledge of what good book-making is will enable the head of even the smallest library to get at least some better looking books "of permanent value" at little or no increase of cost. It will be some time before even the majority of library books are a credit to the printer and the binder. That should be all the more reason for attempting as much improvement as is practicable.

It should be possible and it would certainly be desirable to adopt the suggestion of Mr. Wellman that direct attempts be made to educate librarians as to the characteristics of good printing so that they could more confidently judge books on their typographic merits. Occasional special bulletins, articles in library periodicals, and the inclusion in A. L. A. programs of occasional addresses and papers are practical. Mr. Cleland's talk at the Berkeley conference in 1915 is cited by Mr. Wellman as an example.

The well-made book has an artistic appeal that, from the wide circulation of books and magazines, could be made nation-wide in its influence. In most cases the well-made book has an economic value in lasting longer, and it is likely to receive better treatment. Keeping these things in mind, it should be possible for publishers to receive better library support for better-produced books. Quantity

production *can be* made to serve art by reducing the cost of each unit. The fact that librarians rather generally have been a little loathe to commit themselves to guaranteed support of any project of the kind is not necessarily a reason why they should continue to do so. If the hesitation arises from uncertainty as to what real artistic values are, the handicap can be removed. The printer is steadily regaining his early place as an artistic craftsman rather than a mere mechanic. Librarians can much more easily than ever before find good examples of book-making to study. If the hesitation arises from high price, that too, can be remedied by better support of creditable work at reasonable rates, leaving the exceptional and the limited edition, as before, to the limited public for which it was intended *).

Finishing and lettering a binding.

After the covers of the full bound book are "crushed" and the back polished it is ready to be decorated. It is only the well bound book which has any claim to decoration. Heaping ornamentation upon a cheap and shabbily made book is like covering a coarse and cheap garment with embroidery. One of the services which good handicraft binding has done for commercial binding is to teach this canon of taste. It is now unusual except in the case of novels, to see decoration on commercially bound books. Dignified commercial books are usually bound in plain cloth, with simple lettering of the title and nothing else. It was quite usual a generation ago to cover books of poems, etc., bound in cloth, with senseless filigree mechanically applied.

The proper decoration for a leather bound book is technically called tooling or finishing and is of two kinds, "blind" tooling where gold is not used, and gold tooling. The pattern on a commercial book is made by putting it upon a plate and stamping it off upon the cover in one stroke. This is the only way in which thousands of copies can be turned off. The hand bound book is a very different matter; each copy is a special creation and it is presumed that a book is not thus especially bound unless it has some value either in itself or personal to the possessor.

*) A. L. A. Committee on book production. Report, 1925-26. A. L. A. Bulletin, 20: 366-68, 1926.

"Tools", technically in bookbinding, are the implements for putting the decoration upon the book; "tooling" is the process for doing so. The tools are little dies of metal set in wooden handles. They are heated and patterns are stamped with them in the leather by a process presently to be described.

The "tools" and patterns of a handicraft bookbinder are personal to him and should no more be appropriated by others than any other sort of design. The tools are made to order from drawings which he furnishes the tool cutter. The most useful tools for designs are simple forms such as a conventionalized leaf, flower, or part of a flower, which can be used in a great number of combinations. The more elaborate and intricate a tool is the less frequently it can be used. An amateur craftsman often makes the mistake, in the beginning, of making his tools too interesting in themselves. A complicated lily, for example, can be used only two or three times, perhaps; a picture of a ship still less often. One cannot cover a great variety of books with a lily or a ship pattern without becoming monotonous, and the more naturalistic the tool design is the less often it can be used. Besides a few simple, fundamental forms, a considerable number of gouges, i. e., of curved lines of various lengths, and curves, and of straight lines, are required; also dots and circles. With this equipment, and a pencil, a pattern is made on a handmade paper, which is strong enough not to be broken away by the pressure of the tools thru it upon the leather ... The lines are first drawn with a pencil, and then fitted by the gouges of various lengths and curves. The tool forms are roughly drawn in with a pencil; and when placed as desired, the tools are blackened in the smoke of a candle and thus exactly transferred to the paper. As the medium is rigid, freehand drawing or any attempt at naturalism on book covers is in bad taste. The more formal, conventional and balanced the designs are, the better fitted to "tooling". This, of course, does not imply that they need be without grace and charm. The French binders, tho the greatest technicians, especially in tooling, often make the great mistake in taste of attempting representations and illustrations on the covers of books ... The paper is cut to the exact size of the cover, is folded in half twice, vertically and horizontally. One angle is also bisected by a fold. The pattern is begun in the corner.

It may be said of designing for books, as for many other, perhaps for all other crafts, that it is impossible to do it well without knowing the medium. General principles of design may well be

taught, but quite obviously a design which is suitable for embroidery or wood carving might be wholly untranslatable into gold tooling, and even if it were possible, wholly inappropriate as in the case I have cited.

The pattern attached and the tools heated, the latter are applied to the intervening paper and pressed thru it into the leather. A smooth, thin but tough handmade paper is the best.

The impression thus produced is called "blind tooling" . . . This blind tooling is slightly washed over with vinegar, with a very little paste in it . . . It may be applied with the glaire brush. After that has become dry, the glaire is applied. Glaire is made by thoroughly heating the whites of eggs — say three at a time, for two or three person's use, — adding a teaspoonful of vinegar, letting the substance stand for some hours, and then straining it thru a bit of cheesecloth. A little more vinegar may be added if it becomes too thick and the glaire again strained.

The glaire is now carefully applied to the tooled surface with a camel's hair brush, taking pains to touch every point of the tooling without slopping it about on the untooled part . . .

Gold leaf is bought in little books at a gold beater's and the necessary appliances for using it are a leather "gold cushion", a gold knife, (long, straight and not too sharp) some cotton and an oil. Palm oil is rather the best, but if it is not to be had, cocoanut oil will do . . .

A single sheet of the gold is now laid flat and smooth upon the cushion. That is to say, the novice *attempts* thus to lay it there. The probabilities are that the first few attempts are crowned with little success and the sheet crumples and blows about and ends on the floor . . .

The gold sinks down into the tooled depressions and they should, if sharply defined, be plainly seen. As it is very rare that no cracks at all are made in the gold, it is necessary to cover each part of the tooled surface twice . . .

Letters are more difficult than other tools because the slightest inclination in one direction or another is very noticeable; whereas a leaf, turned slightly one way or another, may not strike the eye at all . . .

When the surface has all been tooled, it is rubbed over with a piece of flannel (by the present writer) and the superfluous gold removed. Frugal binders use crude rubber, prepared by soaking in petroleum which takes the extra gold up into it. When the piece is

quite filled and will hold no more, it is sold to the gold beater who melts the rubber out . . .

Lettering is perhaps the most difficult thing in "tooling". In one sense it should have come first, as half-bound books must be lettered while it is quite out of taste to decorate them . . .

Commercial binders set letters in a "palette" and stamp the whole title at once. But handicraft binders use each leaf as a separate tool. The pattern of the title must be as carefully made as any part of the pattern. A strip of the tough, handmade paper is cut to the width of the panel, between the bands. The second panel from the top is the right one for the title and the one below it for the name of the author, if that is to be tooled. In some cases the title includes it, e.g., *Sonnets of Shakespeare* instead of *Sonnets, alone, and William Shakespeare* in the panel below would look rather foolish. The arrangement of titles requires a good deal of planning and some taste and, not infrequently, invention, when the title is very long or very short, or the book's shape and size very unfitted to it.

The date of the edition should be tooled at the bottom of the lower panel, it being longer than the others. The pattern in all the decorated panels is the same . . .

Decorated papers for the "paste down" and first fly leaves or end papers, are pleasant if the paper is really pretty. Pretty Italian and Japanese papers which are strong enough for pasting down, may be had. Marbled papers are usually excessively ugly. The French binders are much addicted to the use of the ugliest of these — those with glazed surfaces. The idea of the glazed surface is to prevent the discoloring of the paper from the oil in the leather. The paper, unless glazed, will eventually turn brown from contact with the opposite leather . . .

The very last thing to be done is pasting down the end paper which covers the exposed hinge. This is not done until the lettering and all the decorating is finished, for the reason that the ends become soiled in working on the book . . .

This final process of pasting down the ends, when neatly and successfully done, tho one of the minor processes, makes a very great difference in the appearance of the book, removing the naked appearance of the book's bones, as it were, showing along the hinges; and the soiled and untidy look of the protective sheets. It is like the completion of a toilette, and the precious volume which, wrought

with affection and interest has come to have a distinct personality to the binder, is now ready to meet the not too discerning public*).

Durability of leather in bookbinding.

I know from my own experience that heat and dryness are very bad for all kinds of leather, and tend to weaken and harden them. It is true that all leathers except black are put through what is called a clearing bath of weak sulphuric acid before coloring, which whitens the leather and makes the color take evenly, but then this has always been done, with the old style of wood colors even more than with aniline dyes, so that this would hardly account for the present-day leathers being less durable and lasting.

The tanning methods of to-day are without doubt very different from the methods of past years, nor would it be possible, on account of the present consumption of book-binder's leathers, to come back to old methods.

The old method of tanning when skins were packed away in pits with layers of the tanning material between them, and were there kept moist for weeks and months while the tannic acid soaked into them, certainly made better leather than the present methods of forcing the tanning process. But, as said above, it is impossible to come back to this method, both on account of quantity and price.

It is my opinion that 75 per cent of book-binder's leathers manufactured to-day are used for ephemeral publications which are not expected to be used or kept more than a year or two years at the outside, so that economy in the cost of leathers for this kind of binding is quite a consideration, and has had the effect of reducing the price of all kinds of leathers, even when the book is of lasting character. It has become important also to reduce the labor cost in binding, so that the binder to-day insists on thinner leathers that may be more easily and more cheaply worked than in old times.

In regard to cloth and buckram bindings, I think if this subject is carefully looked into it will be found that if the book is used it does not last as well as the better kinds of leather, such as morocco, cowhide, and perhaps even the despised roan. But if not used it will certainly stand time better than any leather tanned by either old or new methods.

*) Starr, Ellen G. Book-binding. Industrial arts magazine, 5 : 97-103.

Libraries should be willing to pay fair prices for binding or rebinding their books . . . , and insist on having good heavy leather of either morocco or cow in the binding of the books that will be constantly used.

Insist that the bookbinder also shall be willing to pay a fair price for his leather and buy it of responsible houses Undertanned leather is always brittle and weak, and every day adds to this till at last it almost literally falls apart, while a really dead tanned leather will stand the action of both time and heat.

When it can be managed, a little addition of oil to the back of the leather adds greatly to its strength and durability, and this can be done with heavy leathers; but on thin skins oil cannot be used, because any oil coming through to the surface of the leather stops the gold from taking.

Finally, I wish to make a little suggestion in regard to black or very dark blue or green leathers. Use them as little as possible. All leathers of this description are made with acid, generally vinegar and iron, and of course this tends to rot the leather . . . *).

Points worth remembering in rebinding fiction, A. L. A. Committee.

1. It is generally not advisable to mend books in the original publisher's binding. Loose leaves or illustrations may be tipped in if the work is carefully done, but no attempt should be made to fix loose signatures, and on no account should paste be put on the back of the book. If this is done it will be impossible to have the book rebound so that it will wear well. The life of the book is really shortened by such false economy. If the book is broken at the joint even to a very small extent, send it once to be rebound.

2. Do not resew and put back in publisher's covers. If the book is properly sewed and backed it will be too large for the original covers. It also makes it impossible to rebind, so that the book will wear well.

3. Do not wait till the book falls apart before sending to the bindery. As soon as a book becomes a trifle shaky in the covers, send to the bindery. Further wear injures the back of each signature,

*) **Pyle, Walter.** Durability of leather in bookbinding. Library journal, 26 : 386-87, 1901.

Mr. Pyle was a manufacturer and dealer in bookbinding leather.

and makes it impossible to rebind without whipstitching ... No binder can do good work when the book has been allowed to circulate many times after it has become shaky in the covers.

4. The first and last signatures, which receive the most wear, and which in most rebound books give way first, should be guarded with muslin. End papers should also be guarded with muslin.

5. All torn leaves should be carefully mended. All illustrations should be guarded and folded around the signature. If tipped in, as is customary, they usually come out.

6. Books should be trimmed as little as possible.

7. Binders should be cautioned against using too much glue. A book which crackles, or as the binder puts it, "grits its teeth" when opened, has not had the superfluous glue removed in forwarding.

8. Most binders use a super for fastening the book into the covers. This is generally very coarse, and will not wear. Insist on his using a stronger material. A muslin of suitable weight or canton flannel will be found satisfactory.

9. Lettering on the back should consist of author, short title, and call number. Some librarians also stamp a mark of ownership at the bottom of the book *).

Binding the new international Dictionary.

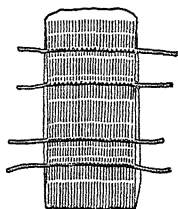
In printing this work a sheet of paper is used which, when folded, makes a unit or signature of 32 pages. After printing and folding, the signatures are gathered and collated to see that all are in proper order.

The gathered pages are then taken to the stitching machine where each signature is sewed onto four hempen cords in the Regular Edition or on linen tapes in the India Paper Edition. Each of the four threads is used unbroken through the entire thickness of the dictionary. Because of this secure method of sewing, it is almost impossible, even with an unusual pull, to separate single leaves or signatures from the body of the dictionary.

After the signatures have been securely sewed onto the cords or tapes, the edges are squared and trimmed by machine and except

*) A. L. A. Committee on bookbinding. Points worth remembering in rebinding fiction and juvenile books. *Library Journal*, 32 : 467-68, 1907.

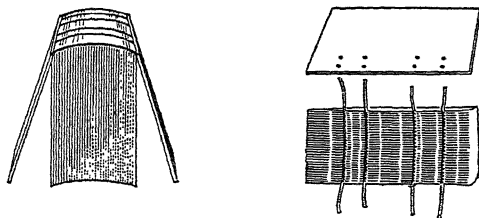
for the hand decorative process of gilding, marbling, or sprinkling, the dictionary is ready to be laced into the covers.



There are two methods of binding, "casing" and "lacing". In casing, the cover with its board sides and flexible back is prepared in advance. The back of the sewed sheets is covered with hot glue and they are then fastened to the cover by means of cheese cloth or other loosely woven "super" material. It is like a ready-made suit.

In binding the New International, we follow the more secure and durable method of lacing the leaves into the cover boards. This work is done entirely by hand, is slow and expensive, but the increased life of the dictionary with the resulting greater satisfaction to the user more than justifies the slower process. The New International might be called a "custom made" book.

Preparatory to lacing the sheets to the cardboard sides, the leaves are placed in a frame, pressure applied, the cords drawn tight and the back covered with hot glue to protect and preserve



the threads and bands. With taps of a hammer the back is rounded over the frame to form an edge for the cover to fit into. Two holes are punched in heavy cardboard opposite the places where each of the four cords will come. The cords are then laced through the holes, drawn tight, tied, and hammered into the board so that the covers and book are almost one piece.

Buckram, leather and other durable materials are stretched and smoothed by hand over the back and cardboard sides to form the cover of the New International. Great care is taken to see that the cover material adheres smoothly to the cover boards, edges, and back.

Heavy lining paper, pasted to the inside covers, hides the overlapping cover material, forms an extra end paper, and adds strength to the binding.

The completely bound dictionary is next placed in a press, where it is allowed to stay until the glue has thoroughly set. It is then taken out, index notches cut and tabbed, the cover stamped with gold, and the book wrapped, ready for shipment*).

*) Courtesy of the G. & C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Mass.; publishers of the New International Dictionary.

LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION AND TYPES OF LIBRARIES.

Topics usually considered under the head of library administration include the organization of a large library, personnel of staff and staff schedule, finances, publicity, statistics and reports, place of library in the community, and others relating to the library as a whole. The term is not definite and the various topics included in courses of instruction in the different library schools vary.

There are, however, different types, or classes of libraries. Among those the public libraries of cities, towns, and counties come first; then the school libraries, from the graded school up to and including the universities; then the special libraries of different kinds, engineering, legal, medical, chemical, financial, etc.; and then the state and national, which may, in some instances, be regarded as special libraries, while in others they are very general. The scope and the services rendered by the state libraries of this country differs very greatly.

A. LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION.

Making a library useful.

Given a small, well-selected library how can it be made to attain its highest degree of usefulness? We have all been in libraries, administered apparently to the most approved library methods: the books are well selected, the card catalogue is a model, and the librarian seems willing and helpful, but the people are not there. There may be a member of a woman's club consulting the encyclopedia, or one or two high school pupils and a few well dressed people who come in during the afternoon to exchange books. Where such a condition is the normal one, the discouraged librarian would be the first to acknowledge that such a library is a failure. What is the cause?

Wherein lies the difficulty? In nine cases out of ten, I believe it lies in our having started with a wrong assumption — that the public is hungry for books. Individuals may be, but the mass of the community has no such hunger. We have another and a quite distinct work before us then, one calling for a new form of energy, a work which is perhaps not so congenial and hence much harder, but which nevertheless must be done before we can feel that we are doing our whole duty. We must create the hunger for books.

The qualities necessary for carrying a successful business are needed here. A merchant would certainly not follow a hard and fast rule as to what the community ought to want, see the number of his customers diminish, his stock remain and console himself with the reflexion that at least he had been true to his conviction, that the best only should be supplied. He would take the community as he finds it and buy accordingly. Then having made his shop as attractive as possible, he would advertise and make every effort to attract new customers, and create new wants. Now this is the principle that should guide the librarian, though his methods will differ widely from those of the merchant, for he offers intellectual and spiritual food, and he must not cheapen his calling by the adoption of sensational advertising methods.

The possibilities of a carefully selected, small library are indeed great. With such a selection and such a community as I understand that you have, it ought not to be so difficult to realize them. You have, in a way, what the larger library has not, the opportunity of making your library a little social center. The people cannot, as in a wealthy community, own their own books to any great extent, there is less of outside interest for them, and they are therefore more dependent on the library. Then too, there is the opportunity for much individual work. You can know your borrowers personally to a very considerable extent, as is out of the question in a large town library.

First do away with all but the absolutely necessary restrictions, making your community feel that the library is a place with all the bars down, and that you are not there so much to care for the books as to help people to get what they want, and this not officiously, but with that spirit of loving helpfulness which can never be mistaken for officiousness. Make both the books and the people your friends and then you will take that same pleasure in bringing them together that you would in bringing together other friends whom you believe would be congenial. Next try to secure

the interest of people by groups, beginning with the schools; after that all kinds of clubs and societies.

If you can possibly do it know some of your poorer borrowers in their own homes; if you have shown interest in their children's reading, you will need no other excuse for calling than this. Hold mothers' meetings at the library occasionally, and explain what the library is trying to do, give those in attendance lists of books which you can recommend to children. Arouse their friendliness for and interest in the library and its aims, and so secure their help in influencing the children to read good books.

Do all you can with the children, the most permanent work is here. Have accessible a plentiful supply of good and attractive editions of standard works, and avoid all "written down" books. Cultivate friendly relations with children and encourage them by individual work in good reading. Read a few children's books occasionally and encourage teachers to give you the results of their experiments in reading to children. Get the comments of all the children themselves, note them, you will find that they are not only of much interest but of real value. Do some judicious bulletin work, but personally I cannot put myself down as in favor of the expenditure of very much time in the preparation of elaborate bulletins. Be on friendly terms with all teachers and enlist their interest and aid. On this subject, co-operation with schools, you will find a vast amount in library periodicals . . .

For we cannot teach people to love that which we do not ourselves love; it is useless to look to library machinery for aid in this. If the modern librarian has a fault, though the diligent reading of library periodicals and attendance on library gatherings would lead one to think he has not, it is the lack of this book sense or book love, a lack for which perfectness of method cannot make up. As Mr. Lee humorously characterizes the modern librarian — "He might be a head salesman in a department store, or a hotel clerk or a train dispatcher, or a broker or a treasurer of something. There are thousands of things he might be — ought to be — except our librarian. He has an odd displaced look behind the great desk. I find I cannot get myself to notice him as a librarian or comrade or book-mind. He does not seem to have noticed himself in this capacity — exactly. So far as I can get at his mind at all, he seems to have decided that his mind (any librarian's mind) is a kind of pneumatic tube or carrier system — apparently — for shoving immortals on people. Any higher or

more thorough use for a mind, such as being a kind of spirit of the books for people, making a kind of spiritual connection with them down underneath does not seem to have occurred to him".

We want method and business-like ways of conducting our libraries, but they should be servants, not masters, supplementary to, never substitutes for the being "a kind of spirit of the books for the people"*)).

Library administration.

In the public municipal library the first essential in its administration is that those in charge of it should have a full knowledge, and a clear understanding, of the legal rights and duties of the library and its officers. They should know and understand the provisions of the state constitution, the state laws, and the city ordinances relating to libraries in general and in particular. This is of fundamental importance to the governing board and to the librarian ...

A second essential is that the governing board of the library — regardless of whether its members are appointed or elected, whether it contains three members or thirty or the ideal number of five or seven — and the librarian should have a full understanding of the functions of each, for both have very definite duties to perform in the administration of a library. The board represents the whole community and is presumably chosen to make the library an efficient means of public education and recreation, and I take it for granted that the idea of "spoils" — politics personal, social, or religious — is excluded from the management of the library. The board should determine the general policy of the library and its administration, regulate the scale of expenditures, salaries, etc.; and I assume that the members of the board are disposed to deal justly and fairly in regard to salaries, hours, and vacations, ever mindful of the fact that reasonably happy circumstances are essential for the best service. The position of the board, therefore, is that of stewardship for the people, and the people have a right to demand that it be exercised. If any member of the board finds that his interest is not sufficient for him to give the library the little time that is required, he owes

*) **Adams, Emma L.** Ways of making a library useful. *Library journal*, 28 : 286-90.

it to the library and to the community to resign; and the community owes it to itself to remind him of this fact, should he forget it.

The librarian should be the executive officer of the board, and as such be responsible to them for the execution of the plans and purposes of the library. It is presumed that he has at least some knowledge and expertness in the profession of librarianship. The librarian, therefore, should have a free hand in developing and managing the internal and technical features of the library, control the assistants, detail the work they are to do, including in this the work of the janitor, and, in general, have full control of the detailed work of the library. As a rule and under normal circumstances the librarian should represent the library before the community and all the employees before the board. With the advice and consent of the board the librarian should have the right to employ, promote, suspend, or dismiss his assistants, again including the janitor.

The failure of governing boards to recognize these functions of the board and the librarian is a most fruitful source of misunderstanding, trouble and inefficiency in library administration . . . If the librarian is incapable of directing or doing this work satisfactorily the board should employ another librarian and not disorganize the whole institution by attempting to right a wrong thing in the wrong way, thereby making the last condition worse than the first . . .

Another essential is that the librarian and the staff should know the history and the spirit of the institution. They are part of an organization that has a life and spirit, things that are rooted in the past. They can accomplish the best results only when all consciously realize the aims and purposes for which they are working. There should be a very definite plan in the mind of the librarian, and the whole staff should be taken into the scheme of the plan, so that all can work together in an atmosphere of freedom — a freedom which is soon felt by the public and which alone can produce the best results.

The smallest town can start a library without a building, and scores of towns bear witness to the fact that they can erect the building when they are ready for it without waiting for some one to present it. I have a special admiration for such towns. They have the true spirit of true democracy.

I believe in fine buildings, handsome fittings, and all that goes with them; but it is a sin against the community when these things are put in and administered at the expense of the service that really

counts in forming the lives and characters of the citizens. Such things are desirable — not essential . . .

Those in charge of a public library are caring for property that belongs to other people. It is essential that adequate records and accounts be kept of all money received and expended so that an intelligent report of one's stewardship can be given at any time. But in book-keeping, as in all other things, eliminate every possible bit of red tape.

It is vastly more essential for the librarian of the small library to be a student, to know the books in the library, than it is for the librarian of the large library. In the large library to know the books in it is, indeed, impossible, and the librarian must depend on others; his time is largely absorbed, as Mr. Putnam once told me in his office in Washington, in pushing buttons — the details of administration.

A system of registration for those who draw books from the library and a regular method of charging the books drawn is essential, though in a small library these records can be made exceedingly simple. In a small town it is not necessary to have guarantors for the registered card holders. I still believe, in view of the methods used in the first library in which I worked, that for a very small library a ledger system of charging is the cheapest and simplest method . . .

From the various essential records that are kept, interesting statistics can readily be gathered, and these serve a useful purpose in making intelligent reports and in keeping up interest in the library; for it is essential that the public, as well as the governing board, be kept adequately informed of all the library is doing . . .

The foremost essential in the administration of a small library (and I mention it last by way of emphasis) is the right kind of a librarian — a librarian with training and experience. With such a librarian the proper spirit of freedom and of service will soon dominate the whole institution; the various personal problems of dealing with people successfully — with the board, with the staff, and with the public — will gradually adjust themselves to the satisfaction of all; the right books will be bought and guided intelligently and sympathetically into the hands of the people who really need them; every part of the work will be characterized by economy, accuracy, and efficiency — economy in the matter of binding, the purchase of books and of supplies, the use of materials and in methods of work; accuracy in all the details of cataloguing

and record; and efficiency in making the library a real vital force in every phase of the life of the community . . .

While all of us fall far short of this ideal, it is the ideal worth striving for, on the part of trustees worth seeking for; for such a librarian is the foremost essential, not only of the small library, but of every library *).

State-wide library service.

Of the various kinds of libraries for the use of the people of the state, we may well place first free public libraries supported by the cities for the use of the residents of the cities. But in many states the number of the cities and towns large enough to support a library adequately, has been nearly reached.

In addition to its public libraries every state contains what perhaps we should place second, school libraries. Their inability to supply the book needs of the people is shown by their limited number in most states. For while there exist laws or state board requirements for their establishment, the provisions of these laws are often inadequate and the laws, such as they are, are often evaded as evidenced by the fact that in one state books may be borrowed from the traveling library to fill these requirements; and in some cases the boxes have remained unopened — still the school could report that it had the books.

Where school libraries do exist they are often inadequate because the book collections are small, poorly selected, and not made available by classification, cataloguing or proper administration.

This lack on the part of school libraries to fulfill even their own function of supplementing the school work, grows out of lack of funds, lack of state supervision, lack of trained and competent librarians, and lack of recognition, on the part of school authorities, of the difference between a properly conducted and a poorly conducted library.

As third, we place college and other reference libraries. In the number of volumes, these libraries always stand high; but, while

*) **Ranck, Samuel H.** Library administration on an income of from \$ 1000 to \$ 5000 a year; essentials and non-essentials. *Library journal*, 30: 58-63.

Mr. **Ranck** is librarian of the Grand Rapids Public Library.

fulfilling a need for research work they do not supply the need, if not greater, at least of a larger number of people, for general reading. They are also limited in their availability for their books can not be borrowed and they are often too distant to be readily visited.

County libraries exist in growing numbers in different states and are being pushed in many more and to them we must look in the future for the solution of our problem. Two states only, California and Utah, consider that they have grown to such numbers as to fill all book needs. In many states there are as yet no county systems and in many others they are not sufficiently developed to take their places alone. Therefore, if any attempt is made for a number of years to come, to supply the "other half" of our population with books, it must be in many states through the travelling library systems which have not yet outlived their usefulness, but occupy an important place in the library facilities of the state.

Perhaps in closing it may not be amiss to suggest the limitations of such state service as I have attempted to describe.

The first is the financial one. To adequately carry on the work of supplying half or more than the population of a state with books through one agency, and at long range, requires a much larger appropriation than most states at the present time are willing to make for this purpose, and the work is now and always will be handicapped by lack of funds. And even were that not so, a travelling library is not an economical method of book supply because of the increased cost of library work by mail; the larger force needed to handle it; and the loss in the use of books by the time required for transportation, making necessary a larger collection.

The second limitation is in the service to users of the travelling library; for state service means smaller collections at hand and more delay in securing books than would be true with a local or county library. A mail order library cannot, in the nature of the case, be as satisfactory as one which is as near as your telephone or your automobile.

But above all is the fact that all the people of the state will never be served in this way. Some will never know about it, some will never make the effort to use it, and some will not be satisfied with such service.

The ideal, therefore, would seem to be city and county libraries, supplying the ordinary book demands and in addition a

state department for the fostering of these libraries and the maintenance of a book collection to serve the state through these larger units in supplying books of limited local demand, — to supplement the city and county collections, and for reloaning by them.

One state, — may I be pardoned for now naming that state, — for it is the state which Miss Tyler made famous — that state has a revised version of "Books for Everybody" which reads, "A book for every man, woman and child in Iowa through the libraries of Iowa". Until that glad day shall come when all the states realize that dream through our city and county libraries, state-wide library service through a travelling library will continue to be needed. With adequate support, its possibilities for good are almost unlimited.

Let us therefore pray for liberal-minded and broad-visioned legislators who shall be as anxious as we that the state shall do its full share in providing books for everybody *).

Centralizing university libraries.

It is evident that any question of more than one dimension, and this question is many sided, will present different aspects according to the point of view and several such points of view are possible in this case. That of administration may well be taken up first, not because we would agree with the library assistant who said, "Of course the public should be considered but the staff ought to come first", but this is the simplest and the results are the least open to controversy. It may be said without fear of contradiction from anyone conversant with library management that a greater degree of efficiency and economy in the acquisition of material, in making it available for readers, in the service to general readers, and in the proper care of material, is secured by a centralized system than by a system of departmental libraries. All these points are well brought out in Mr. Bliss' paper. In fact, there is only one debateable point and that is whether the departmental system does not offer some special advantages from other points of view which will outweigh those of administration.

The second point of view is that of material. It is a common error of those unacquainted with the problems of library management

*) **Robinson, Julia A.** State-wide library service. A. L. A. Bulletin, 15: 448-49.
Miss **Robinson** is secretary of the Iowa Library Commission.

to assume that classification is not one of them. To such a person a book classifies naturally into a certain fixed place, perfectly definite in the library scheme. No one of those present will subscribe to this view, least of all those to whom the difficult and delicate task of classification is entrusted. They know that a title may mean nothing or be a snare and a delusion, that the table of contents may be almost as bad, and that the preface, when it is a definition of the book, gives only the intent of the author and not the result he has attained. Witness Julius Caesar who was characterized by the school boy as a celebrated Roman general who wrote a textbook for beginners in Latin, and Defoe who tried to write an imaginative study of the effect of solitude and succeeded in producing a child's classic.

Moreover, the character, scope, and usefulness of books which are clearly on the same subject vary greatly. Some are mere textbooks to be used in prescribed courses, some are reference books to be consulted but not read, some are general presentations for the amateur reader, some detailed handbooks for the professional student, some present the latest developments, and some the beginnings.

It is evident that such differences make the inclusion of all books on a given subject either in a centralized or a departmental collection a very debateable matter.

In such a debate the third point of view, that of the reader, must be considered, but this is at once complicated by the fact that a university library or Library committee must recognize at least three classes of readers, the student, the research worker, and the professor. The professor is named last but you may be sure that if this paper were addressed to a faculty he would have been put first, and perhaps it will be more polite to consider his needs first, especially as it would appear that the professors are the principal advocates of the departmental system. This is partly because they are men "who want what they want when they want it", and who, perhaps correctly, think that their convenience and the economy of their time are very important factors in the efficiency of their departments. This feeling is the stronger the narrower the field of their work and their interests, and consequently the weaker their appreciation of the interrelation of subjects.

The second class is that of the research workers. This class has no well defined boundaries because the modern tendency is to require research work even from students almost from the

beginning. Whether or not this tendency has carried some instructors to extremes is another story — and on the other hand many professors are earnest research workers; but if we consider all of those as research workers when so engaged there would appear in the previous discussion of the subject some confusion as to their needs. From my own experience it appears to me that they need for use while engaged in laboratory work a comparatively small collection of reference books immediately accessible, but that when engaged in preparation for research work they need all the resources of as large a collection as possible and on a variety of subjects, and such work ought to be based on a larger collection than any departmental library could offer and on general aids which such a library could not well afford to duplicate.

The point of view of the student reader is much the simplest. He also wants what he wants when he wants it, but his wants are few and well defined and the chief problem in serving him seems to be one of quantity rather than quality or manner.

This matter of the interrelation of subjects is one of primary importance and yet often inadequately taken into account in the consideration of the question. All of us know that difficult as it is to classify books it is still more difficult to classify readers. Problems in Geology and Mining, for instance, or Chemistry and Chemical Technology or Mathematics and Astronomy, are so inextricably intertwined that a departmental library on one subject must evidently be inadequate without that on the other, and it is equally evident that a student of a problem in Political Economy may have to consult works on a score of different subjects to get his data.

If then the question is one strictly of departmental versus a central library, the latter would appear to be the more satisfactory solution despite the great advantages in convenience and ready access of the former. This is borne out by the history of several important institutions. To mention only four with which I am familiar, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1889 had thirteen departmental libraries and only the very imperfectly articulated skeleton of a central collection. As the result of a series of consolidations it has now practically all the books except those on Architecture and a part of those on Engineering brought together in its one library. The University of Chicago started in 1892 with a plan for independent departmental libraries and has progressed so far in the direction indicated as to have only one large and

eleven small collections while the plan in the Tentative Report which is understood to have the greater support goes much farther in this direction, and the other plan also gives up departmental in favor of group libraries. The Newberry Library was organized by Dr. Poole as a series of departmental libraries but the expense and the inconvenience of the plan have not only prevented its development but have led to a very considerable consolidation which I understand to have been limited chiefly by physical and other peculiar conditions. The John Crerar Library was planned as a central library because of physical and economical conditions altho its librarian at that time, because of the influence of his training and of Dr. Poole's teachings, believed the departmental system better. A very short experience, however, convinced him of the error of his belief and he is now an advocate of the central system, tho he recognizes that the best results are obtained by a combination of the two.

In general terms it would appear that the great mass of books should be collected in a central library and that each department or group of departments should have as its own collection such books as are wanted for immediate use. There is nothing novel in this statement, but perhaps the analysis of the needs of the various classes of readers will help in the decision as to the size of the separate collections. That analysis discriminates, as I do not think has been done before, between the needs of instructors, laboratory workers, research workers, and students. Of these classes only the instructors and research workers need immediate access unless the buildings are widely separated, when the students may perhaps be best taken care of also.

Now these two or three classes have need of only a limited range of books at any one time, so that large departmental collections are not required by them, while the research workers who have a much wider range of book use are better cared for by centralization. The general tendency noted toward one large central collection and a number of small departmental collections would seem to be justified in theory as well as approved in practice.

The size of separate collections will depend on several factors but it was my experience at the Institute that the simple administration of such a collection which alone would be economical, broke down with curious regularity as the collection approached two thousand volumes; and if asked to advise on this point I would

give this as the limit. In most subjects a much smaller collection would be sufficient to meet the needs just mentioned.

The ground thus having been cleared it may be proper to give one paragraph to the subject assigned me, namely the centralization of library buildings. No more is needed, for if the truth of the premises is granted the conclusion is evident. A large central collection severing all departments should be housed in a building of adequate size, adequately equipped and in as central a location as possible.

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology recognizes this by putting the library at the exact geometrical center of the group of connected buildings as planned; the University of Chicago by proposing to place its central library at the exact center of its campus: Yale's new site has been chosen with this in view and Harvard has preferred such a position at a not inconsiderable loss of dignity.

In the matter of adequate equipment, however, there is opportunity for development. Great improvement can be made in biographical aids to research work; and the expansion of human knowledge and the multiplication of its records in books will call for constant advance along this line, as well as in the cognate one of the technique of library methods. On the material side great improvements are possible with means now at our command in utilizing the telephone, telautograph, the almost human and less fallible book carrier, and I venture to predict the addition of the *teleleg*.

When a professor can give over the telephone to the central library the page of the volume he wishes to consult, when the telfer conveys the book at once to the teleleg room and the only human interposition necessary is to open at the right page and to signal the professor that he can read the words thro his electric telescope, the professor will cease from troubling and the question of the centralization of library buildings will be at rest*).

*) **Andrews, Clement W.** Centralizing university libraries. Library journal, 49: 1017-20.

Mr. **Andrews** was librarian of the John Crerar Library, Chicago.

College and university libraries.

The university library differs fundamentally from the public library in that it cannot choose its own line of development. It has before it at the outset a specialized problem, created by agencies superior to itself, which it must solve in order to perform its function. The initiative lies not with the university library, but with the university as a whole, attempting to arrive at certain ends and using the library as one means towards their accomplishment. The public library, on the contrary, is not functionally subordinate to the public school. Its development has been parallel with the school, and it has chosen its own methods of contributing toward the advancement of public education. It was the public library and not the school which chose as its motto "The public library is an integral part of public education". The slogan was needed because the public, namely the tax-payers, had not yet been convinced that the public library was as essential as the public school. The emphasis on public education assumed also that college and university libraries were already recognized as integral parts of higher education. In theory, the assumption was justified, and the foremost among teachers and administrators have emphasized this fact in their writings and from the platform. On the general proposition, no argument is necessary; but there is need of directing the attention of both teachers and librarians to the detailed library problems that arise because teaching and librarianship are both parts of one scheme of higher education. Unless these problems are considered and provided for in advance, any change in scope, purpose or method in an institution of higher education leaves the library lagging behind, forced into a period of temporary inefficiency, from which it emerges with unnecessary effort.

The general tendency in all instruction to-day, including even that in preparatory and high schools, is from what may be called the few-book method to the many-book method, — a recognition of the power of the printed page for which librarians have always stood sponsor. The lecture, note taking, text-book and quizz method of instruction is fast passing away in undergraduate as well as in graduate study. Text-books are still in use in undergraduate and Master of Arts' courses, but they have been relegated to a subordinate position. Emphasis is laid on work done and the assimilation of ideas gathered from many sources rather than upon memorizing the treatise of one author. Necessarily, references are

chiefly to easily accessible works of secondary authority, and reading instead of research is the objective. The culmination of this method is found in study for the doctorate in which research among documents of primary authority is carried on less closely under the daily direction of instructors, but with inherent need for consulting many books.

Instruction, therefore, is in reality carried on by the case method, which has come into extensive use in law schools. In the law school, however, the difficulty of supplying a sufficient number of copies of law reports led to the preparation of case-books, and contrary to expectations, the publication of these books did not decrease the demand for the original reports. In most law schools the case-book serves merely as a point of departure in the investigation of principles. The case method has also been adapted to the study of medicine, a work entitled "Case teaching in medicine" having been prepared by Dr. Richard C. Cabot of the Harvard Medical School. In other subjects, however, the case method has not yet resulted in the preparation of case-books which might be substituted for references to the original sources. There are, indeed, many source books in history, politics, sociology, the classics, and literature, but these thus far have been used as collateral reading and not as substitutes for the sources themselves. It is doubtful whether the case-book for other subjects will ever reach the extensive development which has taken place in law. But the case method itself, apparently, has come to stay. It has been developed so far in fact that most universities give courses for which no text-book is available. For instance, Professor Frederick J. Turner of Harvard University announces in a syllabus of 116 pages that there is no text-book suitable for use in his course on the history of the West in the United States. He thereupon gives citations to about 2100 separate readings contained in 1300 volumes, and says that his course requires no less than 120 pages of reading per week in these books. Professor James Harvey Robinson's course in Columbia University on the History of the Intellectual Class in Western Europe has no text-book, and the reading for a class of 156 students is indicated in a pamphlet of 53 pages, containing references to 301 books. Illustrations could be taken from almost any subject in the university curriculum. For instance, in course 151, Geology, Columbia University, a graduate course, between three and four thousand pages of reading a semester are required in addition to the study of text-books and attendance upon lectures. The course is

divided as follows; two hours a week are devoted to lectures, while eight hours a week are devoted to readings in many books.

The above indicates a general tendency in instruction which has a direct effect upon library problems, and it may be assumed that any librarian will attempt to foresee and meet new demands resulting from such a general development going on under his observation. When, however, there is specific action by the university administration in line with this development, he may find it more difficult without advance information to foresee the problem. A few illustrations may be helpful.

The adoption of the preceptorial system by Princeton University was a decided change from the former method of instruction, and was likely to modify the library problem to an unusual extent. It did, in fact, during the first year of its operation, increase the use of reserve books in the library building more than 16,000 volumes, in addition to increasing greatly the use of the 30,000 volumes on open shelves; and the new demands made it necessary to appropriate annually a considerable sum for the purchase of duplicates. From Columbia University a pertinent example may be drawn. On July 1, 1912, a resolution of the Trustees went into effect changing the regulations governing the degree of Master of Arts. Instead of judging a student's qualifications for the degree by attendance upon lectures and by his thesis, it was required instead that a student should devote to his work "about ten hours a week, including whatever attendance, preparation, incidental reading, or laboratory work may be required". It was possible, therefore, for instructors to require fewer hours of attendance upon lectures and to assign regularly and systematically a greatly increased amount of reading. This they did with the result that in the year 1912-1913 there was a total increase in the use of books in the General Reading Room of nearly 32,000 volumes. The increase in the use of reserve books alone was nearly 6000 volumes.

From the library point of view, the growth of the laboratory or case method of instruction appears to be an independent phenomenon. It should be noticed, however, that coincident with it is the general tendency to adopt a policy of teaching each subject with emphasis on its relations to other subjects. The combined effect which the two changes in methods of instruction have had on library practice is a topic worthy of more careful study than it has here

received. It is possible, however, to state the following observed results:

(1) The total number of volumes needed for a course is larger now than formerly, both because of the increase in the number of separate books required, and because of the need of extra copies of many of these books. Duplication of books has become a normal method of supplying reading. This appears in the accession records of Columbia University Library, which show the addition of duplicates as follows:

1910-11	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14
115	190	1240	3523

It is a significant fact, also, that the College Study, which is the undergraduate reading-room of Columbia College, has over 1000 duplicates out of a total of about 6000 volumes.

(2) There is a progressive demand for larger collections of books on open shelves where they may be consulted without formality. The department library movement is one result of the need for easy access to books. There are opposing elements in the idea of direct access. The first is the desire of departments to build up special collections adjacent to class-rooms and laboratories, primarily for the use of one group of students. The second is the need felt by one group of students for convenient reference to books segregated from another group. Because of the emphasis on the relations between subjects each of which is taught by the case method, there is a considerable overlapping in the printed material required. Unless the librarian has unlimited funds, he has before him an impossible task, involving the purchase of innumerable duplicates and the adjustment and readjustment of the classification according to the changing desires of each department of instruction. The necessity for compromise is apparent, and this shows itself in the tendency, except in the professional schools, to limit the growth of department libraries to narrow lines, providing for other needs by making a large part of the collections in the general library accessible on open shelves.

In a reference library, open shelves, whether in department libraries or in the general library, require much high-grade library service. The reference librarian becomes a direct teacher in the use of books, and gives constant assistance not merely in finding separate books, but in dealing with the whole literature of a subject. Librarians are well pleased that the exigencies of instruction require open shelves, for this is a library policy which has long been

approved by them on independent grounds. It is possible, however, that open shelves may be responsible for an increasing difficulty which confronts the reference department. Graduate students require more assistance in the use of card catalogues than in former years. It has been assumed that this is due to inherent difficulties in the catalogues themselves, including size and complexity of arrangement. The fact may be, however, that the fault lies in the training of the student, who up to the time when he enters upon his graduate work has had little practice in the use of the catalogue because books are directly available either on the open shelf or at the reserve desk.

(3) The whole development from the few-book method to the many-book method presupposes a system of reserve books. By this expression is meant the placing of a collection of books behind an enclosure of some kind from which they are given out by a library assistant for use in the room. The reserve collections, continually changing in accordance with the directions of instructors, are in reality composite text-books. The burden of purchasing and caring for these books has been transferred from the student to the library. Such a system is first of all a convenience to the students who thereby know where the required reading in a given course is to be found. It is also essential from the library point of view in order that the books which the library already possesses may be in constant use before additional copies are bought. This is accomplished by permitting the student to keep a book only while he is actually using it, and in some cases, during rush periods, limiting the length of time during which he may use the book in the reading room, in order that it may be loaned to as many students as possible in one day. A record of the use of the book, including the students' names, is kept, and this information may be of great assistance to the professors in learning what students are doing the required reading. The mere clerical work of maintaining an efficient reserve system is large, its success being dependent upon intelligent co-operation between the teaching faculty and the library; but it involves also a technical problem to be solved by the librarian. What relation does the number of copies of a given reserve book bear to its use? To put the question correctly: How many copies of a book are required to supply a class of 200 students, all of whom must read thirty pages of the book within two weeks? The librarian must decide this question in advance, in order that enough books may be on hand. He cannot rest his decision wholly upon the recommendation

of the instructor chiefly interested, because requests for the same book often come from several sources. The duty of administering the reserve collections with economy and efficiency must be accepted by the library. In order to find a basis for judgment, the present writer in 1910 attempted a study of the use of reserve books in the Columbia College Study. For periods ranging from four to twenty-eight days, records were kept of the use of books most in demand in literature, history, philosophy and economics. For each book the following facts were recorded: (1) number of copies, (2) number of students, (3) total number of times all copies of a book were used, (4) average use per day, (5) average use of one copy per day. Recognizing that it would be impossible to deduce definite conclusions from the figures, since they do not include other elements such as (a) the number of pages of required reading in each book, (b) the length of time in which it must be done, (c) the character of the subject matter, and (d) whether there were alternative readings, the following generalizations were made: in English and American literature, where ordinarily the reading is not difficult, a class of 175 to 200 students can be served by five copies of a book. In history and economics the same number of copies will serve a class of not more than 65 students when an assignment of 50 to 75 pages is to be read in ten days. In philosophy, three copies of a book are usually sufficient since the demand is steady rather than spasmodic.

The above conclusions were drawn on the assumption that professors would announce assigned reading a considerable time before it must be completed and that excuses from students that "they could not get the books" would not be accepted. They relate to only one undergraduate reading-room, and must not be taken as generalisations which would hold in other colleges or under other conditions. They merely represent the results of one attempt to solve a technical problem involved in the administration of the reserve system.

There are two kinds of growth in a university which directly affect the library. The first is growth in what is offered to students, and the second is growth in the number of students and professors. Under the first head come additions to the curriculum. The evolution of the curriculum and its relation to the elective system have been investigated by students of the history of education. It has been shown that the transformation of university libraries from storehouses to laboratories for use began when the elective system broke down the rigidity of the curriculum. This itself is a significant fact; but

we need to realize that the curriculum is a matter of constant interest to librarians. The mental process of determining that a new subject shall be added to the curriculum involves a consideration of books, for no new subject is apt to receive serious consideration unless it has developed a literature of its own. Fundamental as this fact is, it is easily overlooked when a new course or department is established. In general it may be said that the literature of a new subject is the most expensive part of the equipment which will be required, and that very likely an addition to the library budget will be necessary. As a general rule, "new departments are as sciences, the result of combining certain phases of older sciences, or offshoots of one, or attempts to synchronize several". The desire of the new officers of instruction is naturally to draw from the general collection those books which deal specifically with the new subject, and to build up a collection which divides itself by new lines from the older topics. As has already been shown, this demands new purchases and much duplication.

The addition of an entirely new school to a university produces important library results even though funds are provided for additional books. For instance, the methods of the Princeton University Library have been almost revolutionized by the development of the Graduate School. With this development has come the necessity for segregating books which formerly were in the general collection, and of providing service which was formerly unnecessary. In Columbia University the establishment of the School of Journalism necessitated a large departmental library occupying a whole floor in the Journalism building, and containing in addition to ordinary reading rooms a newspaper room which is expensive to maintain. Immediately, however, the difficulty arose of so limiting the purchases for that school as not unnecessarily to duplicate the collections in the General Library.

Thus far, under this head, we have mentioned only extension by means of accretions to the curriculum. But there is a further avenue of extension by continuing the courses through the summer, and by continuing them into the evening. The Summer Session at Columbia University began in 1900 with an attendance of 417. From that time until 1909 the growth was gradual, but from 1909 to 1914 the attendance increased from 1946 to 5590. This enormous development of the summer courses, held during six weeks in July and August when the regular work of the university is suspended, makes continuous the wear and tear on books and the strain on the

library staff. It is optional with members of the teaching faculty whether they accept appointments for the Summer Session, while with the library staff the extra work has been considered part of their regular duty. There is no complaint on this score, but it is evident that the library problem has been greatly complicated. The summer vacation was formerly a period when large gifts could be catalogued, rearrangement of collections made, an inventory taken, and preparations made for the regular session. Practically all such work now has to be done during the brief period between the close of the Summer Session and the opening of the fall semester. Unfortunately this also in the period when most of the members of the library staff must take their vacations.

New university activity, through the Department of Extension Teaching, fills reading-rooms as well as class-rooms during the evening, and creates a demand for new books and for more copies of books already provided for day courses. The actual number of potential readers added to the clientele of the library by the Extension Department of Columbia University in the year 1913-14 was 2813. This number does not include those who have become members of the Institute of Arts and Sciences, which forms the non-academic division of Extension teaching. The needs of this latter group are partially met by co-operation with the Public Library, which has established a branch in the library building.

Problems raised by mere numerical growth in professors and students are perhaps more easily foreseen than any which have been discussed. It is evident that a library equipped as to buildings, staff and books to serve a faculty and student body of a given size must eventually have a larger equipment, if the number of users continues to increase. For some time the librarian, by readjustment of facilities and by increase in general efficiency, can meet the increased demands. To use the phrase of the engineer, he will not be justified in asking that his plant be increased until he has developed the existing equipment to the highest point of efficiency. He can prepare for a certain percentage of normal growth and will do so as a part of his ordinary duty; but there comes a time when nothing short of more seating capacity and larger appropriations for staff and for books will suffice.

From the above recital an undoubted conclusion can be drawn, namely, that the library not only in theory but in practice, is an integral part of the educational system of the university. It must be fully admitted therefore that the library's policy is predetermined

by the university itself, and that the aim of the teaching faculty must be adopted by the librarian as his own. This done, his problem begins.

To those who have participated in the attempt to meet changing conditions in a growing university it is not necessary to point out that this problem is a technical problem. The librarian stands in the position of an engineer, to whom is presented a task which by the methods of his profession he must perform. Numerical growth, expansion, addition of new schools and new subjects, and the introduction of the laboratory method by which books are made actual tools for use, all mean to the librarian more books; larger reading rooms and more of them; a large staff, specialized and grouped into departments; the supervision of a complicated system; and capable business administration. These are all technical matters and are of sufficient magnitude to require all the time and strength of those to whom they are entrusted.

The peculiar relation which a university library bears to its constituency has produced various devices for giving the faculty a large voice in the administration of the library. There are faculty library committees, joint committees of the trustees and faculty, departmental library committees and representatives, and there is general acceptance of the necessity for cordial co-operation between the library and each member of the faculty. All this is admirable; but faculty committees and representatives naturally concern themselves with policies and ends sought rather than with methods and technical library problems; while co-operation is a voluntary and unofficial relationship, easily overlooked in the press of academic duties. The technical problems remain to be performed by those who have elected to serve through the profession of librarian. And since no change can be made in the policy or methods of a university without raising some technical problem, it is the technical librarian who, as adviser, should be placed in a strategical position in the university. In other words, he should be so placed in the university that all changes in the scheme of educational administration will normally come to his attention before they are acted upon, instead of after they have become accomplished legislation. It is not sufficient that he receive such advance information as others not primarily interested in the library deem necessary. It is not to be expected that those who do not actually direct the technical activities of the library will perceive fully the technical bearings of proposed legislation. The technical librarian

therefore should be present at the meetings of that body through whose hands all educational legislation passes. This does not imply that he need be present as a voting member, but it does assume that he can be of assistance to the voting members and that, in order to perform efficiently the duties which rest upon him, he is entitled to foreknowledge of his tasks. As a practical working unit in the scheme of education, the library needs recognition, regardless of all questions of rank, title or academic standing*).

Library as a university factor.

In our efforts to define the ideals of education there has been a tendency to neglect the study of the means. This has been especially true, it seems to me, of our study of higher education, and is well illustrated by our failure to study the university library problem.

This failure is due, perhaps, to a feeling that these practical problems are special in character, and should be left to the specialist to solve. It is due also, I believe, to the rather common conception of a library as a building or collection of books rather than as a form of service.

In the time allowed me for the discussion of the library as a university factor I wish to point out that our most perplexing and, perhaps, most important library problems are problems of university organization rather than of library administration, and so problems for the university administrator rather than the librarian. I wish also to make it clear that the administrative problems of the library staff are problems of instruction primarily rather than problems of clerical attendance and mechanical dexterity.

Among all university library questions the most important and most puzzling is that of the relation between the several libraries of the university. There are still some who would solve this question, or profess that they would solve it, by consolidation of all libraries in one building. All who have given the question serious thought, however, realize that considerations of space and time alone make consolidation of libraries undesirable.

*) **Hicks, Frederick C.** Library problems resulting from recent developments in American universities. *Library journal*, 40 : 307-12.

Mr. **Hicks** is librarian of the Law Library of Columbia University.

The importance of the department library in professional schools of law and medicine, and in departments devoted to natural and applied science, has long been recognized. The libraries of these schools and departments are ordinarily separate and distinct collections of books. Their separation from the general library is justified by the nature of their use either as independent bodies of literature or in connection with laboratory work. For these reasons also they are rarely duplicated in the general library.

Within the last decade the establishment of department reading rooms within the domain of the humane sciences also has become common. These are intended especially for the use of students in history and the social sciences, for students in literature, and for undergraduate students. They comprise the most important part of the books designated as required reading and consist largely, if not altogether, of duplicates of books in the general library. They are located near the lecture rooms simply to facilitate the reading of students between lecture periods, and are justified, it seems to me, only by the extent of their use.

How far the development of department libraries should be allowed to go, especially in the humane sciences, is difficult to determine. Undoubtedly as many reading rooms should be maintained as can be successfully maintained, but even experience does not always indicate where the maximum of efficiency may be secured with a minimum of expenditure, at any rate it does not indicate it with the same clearness to the librarian and to the ambitious department head.

The main reason for this difference of opinion lies in the fact that the librarian cannot with the funds at his disposal do all that is asked of him, not even all that needs to be done, while the department head is in duty bound to ask for all that his department needs immediately or may need in the future regardless of the needs of other departments. In transforming our department libraries into university libraries, therefore, there is an unfortunate division of interest which we must do away with. In other words, just as we have recognized that the books must be placed where they will be most useful to those for whom they were primarily purchased, so we must recognize that the increase of these collections and the conditions of their use are questions for the department first of all, and only secondarily questions for the librarian. It is the department which should consider not only the desirability but the practicability of establishing and maintaining a department library. This will

involve study not only of the department's needs but also of its resources. It will mean unification of the department budget.

Each school or department should have, I believe, a separate library budget. This should be considered primarily as a part of the budget of the school, and if a school is not increasing its book collections with sufficient rapidity, or if it is not receiving the grade of library service which it needs, it should in making budget recommendations determine whether the need for more books or better library service is more pressing than that for additions to its staff of instructors or to its equipment in other directions. The history of the library appropriation is too much like that of our federal rivers and harbors bill; it is high time that more care should be taken in the preparation of estimates of expenditures and less solicitude shown as to the allotment of expenditures; and it is particularly important that estimates of expenditures for the library should be considered side by side with other estimates of the department, and first of all by the school or the department. In other words, it is more important that the budget of the school or department should be considered as a unit than that the budget of the library should be so considered.

No less necessary to a department library than a properly adjusted income is a department librarian; indeed, the statutes of the university should recognize that there can be no library without a librarian. Department librarians in most universities are only librarians in name. As a rule, they are either needy students or benevolent but over-worked professors. In an institution with few books or few readers this matters little, perhaps, but in an institution with hundreds of thousands of volumes, and thousands of students, there can be no question as to the importance of the office of department librarian, and no question as to the desirability of securing the best men in the profession to fill these offices.

The general library staff must in the nature of things serve classes of students rather than individuals. The department librarian may discover the needs of the individual and do much to satisfy them. In this respect, indeed, he has opportunities that the instructor himself does not have, particularly opportunities to direct research and answer questions regarding research methods and materials.

The establishment of department libraries with separate budgets and separate library staffs should not, however, be followed by their separation from the general library. There is danger that department libraries may simply reproduce on a smaller scale the

organization of the general library, and that department librarians may wish to become mere administrative officers, each with his small retinue of clerical assistants. We must, therefore, lay strong emphasis upon the fact that these new library officials are not primarily administrators but scholars, and not primarily specialists in library economy, but in other branches of science. Their time must be devoted to the study of the literature of their respective subjects and the needs of the readers in their several departments; the ordering of books, the cataloguing of them, the binding of them, questions of equipment and supplies, etc., must be left of the general library staff. In short, it is only by centralization that we can secure any considerable amount of specialization either in the collection of the department library or in its service.

In the organization of university libraries the question of the relations between the general library and the department libraries is closely related to the question of government. In both college and university the president and trustees are, of course, ultimately responsible for library policies and the allotment of funds with which to carry them out, and ordinarily a library committee of the board of trustees is charged with the duty of advising the board with regard to these matters.

In the college these duties are shared by a library committee of the faculty. This committee is a survival from the days when the librarian was some bookish member of the teaching staff with a pardonable partiality toward his own department; its continuance is only justified by the fact that the librarian is often, too often, a mere clerk. In the larger colleges and universities, however, its duties are being transferred to the librarian and his assistants on the one hand, and on the other hand to the library committees of the several schools of the university.

A library council composed of representatives of the administrative departments of the university library and the department libraries has not, so far as I know, been established in any university. But important steps in that direction have been taken in the inauguration of library staff meetings and in the appointment of special committees of the staff to consider special questions; and the time is, I believe, not far distant when a body of this kind with well defined powers will be created in each of our larger and more progressive institutions. Nothing, I am certain, would do more to preserve the unity of the library service than this and at the same time give the staff that freedom in its activities,

and that power of initiative and control, which is essential to library efficiency and economy.

Of fundamental importance are the library committees of the several schools of the university. The librarian and his colleagues must in the nature of things determine how the work of the library shall be carried on, but the several faculties of the university and officers of instruction must indicate what work they wish done, and decide what proportion of their expenditures they wish to devote to getting it done. The consideration of these questions in their general aspect must be referred to a committee of each faculty.

In an institution which is growing rapidly either in income or in enrollment, in one in which changes in the library staff are frequent, or in one which can afford only clerical library assistance, such a standing committee is of great importance. Without it the department library is, to use a parliamentary figure of speech, at the mercy either of the committee of the whole, or of even less responsible and sometimes self-appointed special committees. Without it the needs of the school as a whole, the needs of the departments, and the needs of the classes may often receive less consideration than the wishes of an aggressive and noisy individual.

If, however, these department committees are to be most effective it is important that their limitations be recognized as well as their use. In this place it is sufficient to point out that they cannot advantageously assume the duties of either the department librarian or of the individual department or officer of instruction. They should not be called upon to select books or determine methods of administration. Their chief, if not only duty, as I have already indicated, is to define the needs of the department library and indicate their importance as compared with other needs of the school.

The organization of the library and its form of government must affect the standing of members of the library staff. In former years the college depended upon a professor to perform the administrative duties of the library; it still depends upon professors to perform its bibliographical duties; and will, perhaps, continue to do so.

But in the university the bibliographical work as well as the administrative work of the library must, I believe, be transferred more and more from the teaching staff to the library staff. There are many reasons for this — the increased mass of books and periodicals, the increasing number of readers, and greater

devotion to research among university teachers alone make such a differentiation of duties inevitable.

It may be pointed out, moreover, that this change is not only inevitable but desirable. The transfer of bibliographical duties of a higher type is accompanied by a transfer of duties of a clerical and mechanical type which is wholly in the interest of university efficiency and economy. Not only do professors and students receive a higher grade of bibliographical service from bibliographical experts, but the time which is under ordinary conditions wasted in unprofitable bibliographical research is saved for the more advanced work involved in serious investigation.

The importance of the bibliographical service of a bibliographical expert to the university in the development of its book collections, and in the service of readers has been recognized by such educators as President Gilman and President Harper. Indeed, the former said: "Every person in charge of the university collections must be a student capable of teaching. His speciality must be bibliography, or, if the staff is large, some branch of bibliography, literary, historical, philosophical, or scientific, and he must know not only what his collection includes but what it needs". This view will, I am certain, become common, and the bibliographical work of universities be transferred more and more from the teaching staff to the library staff.

This change must be accompanied by further differentiation between the bibliographical and clerical duties of the library staff, the establishment of higher standards for admission to the bibliographical service than for admission to the clerical service, and the extension to bibliographers of privileges and emoluments similar to those enjoyed by other scientists.

Under normal conditions all library officers having academic rank are appointed in the same manner as officers of instruction. Clerical and other assistants are appointed by heads of library departments. Heads of departments are given professional rank, and other bibliographers rank as instructors. The university librarian may have a seat and a vote in the university council, and each department librarian a seat and vote in the faculty of the school which he serves as librarian.

The question of academic status is, however, of less importance than that of requirements for admission to the service and that of opportunities for scientific research for the members of the library staff. Standards of appointment to the several grades in the staff

of the library must be made the same as those in the corresponding grades of the staff of instruction. In other words, every member of the general staff of a university library of the bibliographical grade should have had in addition to undergraduate work at least one year's additional work in a library school, to acquaint him with the technical problems of the library, and every department librarian should have had at least one year's additional work in the subjects represented in the curriculum of the school of which he is the librarian to make him more familiar with the literature of these subjects.

Of even greater importance is opportunity for continued study. The time may come when it will seem unwise to expect the same number of hours of office work from bibliographers that we exact from clerks. However that may be, it seems to be eminently desirable that junior bibliographers should be allowed time each year to pursue one course of study, and that those above the grade of junior bibliographers who wish to attend summer school or engage in research in library economy in other libraries should be granted the necessary leave of absence, perhaps.

But whatever the requirements for admission to the university library service may be, and whatever the opportunities for bibliographical research in its service, the essential thing is a scientific attitude toward the problems of the library.

It is, I believe the peculiar duty of the university to encourage a scientific attitude toward library questions as toward other questions, particularly in the library staff. Indeed, among members of the library staff it may not only encourage scientific bibliographical research, it may even require it just as it requires research in other departments of the university, and advancement in the staff may depend as much upon scientific attainments as shown in contributions to professional journals and professional meetings, as upon the output of routine work of immediately practical value.

I wish to lay some emphasis upon the importance of this, because there seems to me to be a tendency in library work to ignore the fact that the practical problem is only the problem of the one while the scientific problem is the problem of the many, and an inclination to devote our time and thought to routine detail. This is unfortunate not only for the individual, but also for the institution, and not only for the individual institution but for libraries as a class and for universities as a class. Indeed the individual librarian suffers

less from his isolation than does the institution of which he is librarian; less, too, than does learning at large.

For this reason we must approve the efforts which have been made in the last few years to standardize the library service of colleges and professional schools. The National Association of State Universities' Committee on Standards in 1908 advised that there should be adequate general and department libraries with a sufficient number of duplicate books for purposes of undergraduate instruction, and, when graduate work is offered, books and other material for purposes of research. The Association of Collegiate Alumnae requires that the number of books in the library of a college seeking admission to the association and the number of periodicals currently added shall not be less than the average number in institutions of the same type already admitted to membership. The conference of the chief state school officers of the north central and west central states held in Salt Lake City in 1910 passed a resolution providing that colleges having an income of \$ 10,000 and seven departments of instruction should have a library of at least 5000 volumes, selected with reference to college subjects and exclusive of public documents.

The standardization of the library service of professional schools has also received consideration. At the meeting of the Association of American Law Schools in 1912 an amendment to its constitution was adopted providing that each school should own a library of not less than 5000 volumes. And the American Medical Association council on medical education describes the essentials of a medical college library as follows: "The college should have a working medical library to include the more modern text and reference books and thirty or more leading periodicals and the "Index medicus"; the library room is to be easily accessible to students during all or the greater part of the day; to have suitable tables and chairs, to be properly heated and lighted, and to have an attendant in charge."

The work which these associations has inaugurated should be correlated and carried on from a university point of view, and not merely with the objects of determining a minimum of efficiency for the individual institution, but also with the object of securing the maximum of efficiency for our institutions as a whole. Our smaller institutions should without a doubt have larger resources, but there is even less doubt that our larger institutions should make better use of the resources which they now have.

For this reason nothing seems to me more important at this time than the nationalization of our larger university libraries. I do not mean by this, federal appropriations such as are made to the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, or federal supervision which should properly attend such appropriations, but rather the adoption of the idea of national service instead of that of local service.

This involves in the first place the abandonment of antiquated and provincial restrictions regarding the lending of books and manuscripts, and secondly much greater publicity regarding the contents of our libraries. American scholars are, I believe, suffering less to day from the poverty of our book collections than they are from restrictions attending their use and lack of information as to what they contain. The German university libraries, with their Gesamt Katalog and their liberal system of inter-library loans, are much better organized in this respect. The German scholar has behind him the resources of the nation.

It will not, however, be enough to adopt the most liberal policy with regard to the use of our present resources. It will be necessary to plan also for the largest possible increase in these resources. With this in view nothing is more important than a division of labor between the libraries of the larger institutions. Works of reference, the classics in literature and science, and many current publications, both book and periodical, must be had by every large institution, but the books which are needed by the individual only and by him only once in a lifetime, perhaps, need not and should not be duplicated in our several libraries. This is obviously true of antiquarian books, and it is hardly less true, I believe, of the current issues of the press.

It would be out of the question to consider seriously any such division of labor without careful investigation of existing conditions. Such an investigation must comprehend some of the fundamental questions of university library organization, government and administration, such as I have here outlined, but it must comprehend also the questions of minimum standards which have been considered by the several associations of colleges and professional schools, and finally, the national question of maximum efficiency.

I hope that the idea of such an investigation may commend itself to the members of this association, and that with your approval some such agency as the Carnegie Foundation for the advancement of

teaching may be able to undertake it, and undertake it immediately*).

Departmental organization.

Speaking only from personal experience, as I have been asked to do I find that in analyzing my own task, I am trying to follow these principles: 1. Compactness of organization; as few loose ends as possible, and as few large departments as possible. 2. Distinct determination of duties; the avoidance of friction between departments, and the placing of responsibility for definite things. 3. Co-ordination of departments, for the cogs must fit. 4. Adaptability of the personality to the department and congeniality of departmental heads closely associated. Each of these points presents problems in itself and each is complicated by three considerations—the need for economy, the exigencies of the library building, and the difficulty of finding the right person. If we had plenty, or even a fair amount of money to accomplish the work expected of us, and had a commodious and well adapted building and plenty of fine well-trained people to choose as executives, the work of organization would be play.

As to the first point, compactness of organization: a department is rather an abstract thing; it is just a convenient division of work, which will differentiate as the library grows, and require various segregations under executive heads. The problem is to determine the point at which the differentiation must be made, and here comes the complication of economy. If we are to pay good and sufficient salaries to the right kind of executive heads, then for most of us, it will be necessary to create no more large departments than are absolutely necessary. We cannot afford to elevate every piece of work, even if it is distinctive, to the dignity of a department. Just as long as it can remain under an already existent department, without detriment, it should remain there. As examples, I recall that our order department and catalogue department remained together for many years until they were so thoroughly differentiated as to duties that they needed different executive heads. It is possible that our

*) **Johnston, W. Dawson.** The Library as a university factor. Library journal, 39: 10-15.

Dr. Johnston, was formerly librarian of Columbia University, and other libraries, and was European Representative of Library of Congress.

catalogue department may be divided again by the creation of a shelf department, but for the sake of economy and compactness, the division may be postponed indefinitely. But sometimes new work develops within a department, such as for instance the new hospital service. Shall I lift it bodily now that it has five workers, and make it into an independent department, or let it float awhile under my own personal supervision, until we re-organize possibly our whole body of extension work into a compact unit?

Personally I lean to large departments, with big stimulating and constructive executives in charge, who can subdivide distinctive but related pieces of work and put them under carefully chosen assistants. This plan seems to make compact organization with fewer loose ends, and more harmonious results. There is room, however, for much discussion and difference of opinion.

As to the second point, a distinct termination of duties, there is probably no dissent from the statement that many troublesome problems will be eliminated by a very distinct understanding of the ground covered by a department and the responsibility given for definite units of work. There must be much interchange and willingness to interchange work among assistants, and even among department heads at times, but that does not mean that the border lines of work should be undetermined. If certain recurring duties are floating around, they will certainly cause friction until they are definitely placed, and friction in a staff is always a difficult administrative problem. Fine and well-bred people often rub each other the wrong way; at the least sign of friction, the cause should be searched and a careful sifting and regulation of each one's responsibilities and duties should be worked out.

This brings us to my third point, the co-ordination of departments. In spite of the effort to determine distinctive duties, all departments must work closely and some duties are over-lapping and cannot be separated. Library work does differ widely from business, and we are naturally anxious not to make our organization machine-like, even tho we must do much planning and scheduling. To keep departments working harmoniously on over-lapping duties, we have reached a satisfactory solution in our library by the creation of *standing committees* chosen from closely related departments. For instance, in place of a bibliographical department, there is a bibliographical committee composed of the heads of the circulation and reference departments, and the Athenaeum librarian (in charge of a special fund), with a special assistant assigned to the committee

whose whole time is given to book selection and who meets regularly with the committee. We have also an editorial committee, chosen from different departments which edits and publishes lists, bibliographies, the "Bookshelf" and other publicity. A rule committee considers and revises rules, and interprets them where they are not understood or acted upon alike. Other standing committees could be organized for any pieces of work which overlap. Staff meetings also, either in groups or as a whole, do much to promote co-ordination and mutual understanding.

To speak briefly of the fourth point, the adaptability of the personality to the particular department or task. Of course we all feel that we have done our biggest piece of administrative work when we have found just the right person to accomplish what we have in mind. Often the whole idea of a piece of work develops around a personality. Some one has originated an idea for which she has a particular liking and aptitude, and we begin to build up a new job around that person. I can see in our library a number of places where I could to advantage lift whole pieces of work which have accidentally developed in one place around a personality, and place them elsewhere where they more nearly relate, except that inadequacy of space and limitations of the building demand that they stay where they grew. Much desirable re-organization is interfered with, I imagine, by the inconvenience of our buildings. A factory might tear down and build to suit changing conditions, but unfortunately, our rapidly changing and enlarging work has to be done in old unsuitable buildings and our projects have to be fostered as well as possible under difficulties.

But given the right person to do the work and then giving them broad scope of action and a generous recognition of their best efforts, we will have an organization which functions smoothly. Just as we all learn how to do by doing, so will our staff, and the finest kind of departmental organization and spirit can be obtained only by giving departmental heads the largest possible authority and chance for creative thinking.

But organization within the department also demands that a departmental head give ample scope for initiation to her assistants down to the last clerk or page. Growth and development of each assistant is the surest way to make a working staff. If a head cannot do that and her subordinates feel unhappy or cramped, what shall we do? Transfer the assistants, and give an otherwise good head every chance to build her departmental work. But if she cannot use

authority without domineering, if she has not an enlarging, growing sense of co-operation with her assistants in doing a big public service, then she isn't the right head. It hurts and touches our sympathies to remove her, but no department can be allowed to deteriorate for the lack of the right leadership.

In appointing heads of departments, either of old ones or newly organized ones, we cannot afford to take someone who is waiting for promotion or is first or senior assistant in the department unless she is obviously the right one.

As executive our work is made or marred by our staff and by those whom we choose as leaders, (heaven help those who must take what is thrust upon them by Civil Service regulations), and our biggest task is not to create a faultless scheme of organization, but to get the people who can breathe the breath of life even into a faulty scheme*).

Advertising the library.

When it comes to practical methods of advertising the library's resources, we need to be constantly on the alert to discover the needs, to find fields which can be worked, and then to decide upon the proper medium for accomplishing the result. Nothing can help so much to this end as an acquaintance with the community, the various sections of the town, the various classes of the people, the business and industrial interests, the attitude of various individuals toward books. Several libraries have made community surveys, with highly profitable results. Mr. Solis-Cohen, of Brooklyn, has made the most thorough, perhaps, of these investigations, although confined to one section of the city. These surveys need not be charted or exhaustive. A few days invested in this work or a few hours spent from each week in looking for possible ways for increasing the library's usefulness, will bring in so many various possibilities that the question immediately becomes one of selection. Time and money are limited; shall we have some posters printed to tell the men in the shops that the library is located at Fifth and Broadway and can be of service to them, or shall we take a handful of postcards to the book shelves and send a notice of each of our mechanical books to

*) **Countryman, Gratia A.** Problems of departmental organization. Library journal, 50: 213-14.

the managers of the various factories? We can only decide by studying our book stock and the factories together.

We may discover an area of several blocks in which the residents seem never to have heard of a library. The people are mostly foreigners. Shall we advertise our foreign books, necessitating the purchase of more books, perhaps, or try to establish a deposit station of both English and foreign books in a drug store there? Time and money are the factors in the decision.

Again we should take advantage of organizations to reach large groups of people, especially societies of working men, real estate boards, study clubs, and the like. This is a possible method of advertising which exists in every community but which has been little cultivated. To reach the business men we advertise in their local board of trade bulletin, noting particular books, and we may see some result. Then we may send an individual list to each member. Best of all we can talk for a few minutes before the business men's meeting and show half a dozen sample books. Nothing will convince people that books have practical value so much as to show them an actual book instead of telling about it. However much we may shrink from a talk, or an "address", there are few other methods so profitable as the personal visit, and if the listeners can be induced to ask questions about library methods or particular books, the effort is well repaid. Sometimes arrangements can be made to issue library cards and give out books at these meetings.

There are always broad, standard subjects, in which a great many people are interested, such as music, art, travel, business, housekeeping or electricity. Lists of these are always timely and give results when properly distributed. Whether these lists shall be annotated, or simply title lists, whether they shall be long lists or only short selected lists, requires the knowledge of supply and demand, and depends upon the amount available for printing. It would be rather difficult to analyze the comparative profit from these various forms, and the method of distribution is a much more important element of success than the form itself.

Current events, forthcoming lectures, plays or musical events may be made the occasion for brief newspaper notes or leaflet lists. If the public schools are introducing a course in domestic economy, let the graduate housewives know that they can pursue a course of reading at the public library, or borrow a book of chafing dish recipes. It will not shock the grocer's customer if the delivery boy hands her a library list on housekeeping. If the

circulation of the library is making notable increase, let the figures be given newspaper publicity along with the bank clearings, as a sign that the town is keeping up in its intellect as well as in its real estate.

Newspaper publicity, by almost any test, is the best form that the library can utilize, and should receive continual attention. Where the library can circulate a thousand lists at considerable expense, a six-inch newspaper story will reach many times that number of persons. After the "copy" is prepared for the editor, no further expenditure of time is called for. In nine cases out of ten the newspapers are well disposed toward the library and will give it their help. The extent to which they will give up their space, is exceedingly variable, however. In general, the smaller the city or town the more space can be had. Newspapers in large cities are seldom willing to publish lists. The order of preference which they show for library notes is somewhat as follows:

1. News items concerning new policies, methods, or efforts to improve the library.
2. News items as to large increase in library collection or circulation.
3. Short title lists of new additions of recent and interesting books. Some papers will run these lists as a regular feature.
4. Short title subject lists on some topic of current interest, or on a subject in controversy, etc.

Some libraries are able to prepare "stories" which begin as news items of interesting information, and close with names of two or three library books on the subject. Whether the time consumed is repaid in results depends largely on the ingenuity of the librarian. There will be found on investigation in nearly every town a number of regular publications of societies, groups of people of one interest or language, whose existence was not realized. These magazines and bulletins make fertile ground for special lists and articles; for most of those who read them, it may be assumed, are interested in the subjects in question. The mere acquaintance with their editors is well worth while to the library.

When the library issues printed matter of its own its main care should be in methods of distribution. A subject list given out at the library is a service to those who are already patrons, and may increase the circulation. But the effort of publicity is to introduce new persons to the opportunity which awaits them, rather

than to tell present users the things they may learn from the card catalogue. To place every piece of library publicity in the hands of some one who will respond is a much more difficult thing than to compile a list. When an attractive list of "business books" has been issued, for example, what will be the cheapest way to put every copy before actual business men? They can be distributed by a boy, from office to office; they can be mailed to addresses taken from the business directory or from the membership list of the board of trade. Sometimes they can be given out at a business men's meeting, or sent with other mail going from the chamber of commerce office. In one city the various organizations cooperate with the library by allowing the use of their addressograph machines and lists. The item of postage is one that mounts up very rapidly, and which should be charged against the publicity funds. The multigraph and other machines for printing inside the library are in use in many large cities. Besides saving money, they are fully as useful on account of the quickness with which lists and notices may be prepared after the need has been discovered. If, in the morning, it is found that a lecture on the North Pole is to be given in the afternoon or evening, a multigraph list can be easily ready for distribution. With these machines a library can also send out letters of information or invitation to great numbers of people, at not much over the cost of postage, whereas the expense of having these letters printed would often seem prohibitive. The work incurred can be done at "odd times", when opportunity offers.

Sending individual post-cards notifying non-users of books which should interest them is a fertile means of reaching new prospects. There is sure to be greater response to what seems like a personal message, but the librarian is under greater obligations to see that the reader receives satisfaction than in the case where printed lists or circulars are mailed. The postcard method may also be easily overworked, becoming a heavy time-consumer. In that case it should not be used to send notices of new books which will have naturally a large demand, to friends or persons who already use the library.

There are many ways of distributing posters, such as placing them in store windows, tacking them in shops and stores, or public buildings. Posters in the street cars are in use in several cities. The regular rates for this form of advertising are prohibitive, and it is only practicable when the street car company or some advertiser is willing to give up the space to the library.

The motion picture theater has great possibilities as a medium of library extension. An increasing proportion of the films are of an educational and constructive nature, and the "movies" are patronized by young people of all classes, and by the common run of grown-up people. Therefore it is not necessary for library workers to say that the great majority of films are of a sensational, disagreeable and distinctly unelevating character, that the use of pictures for educational purposes is almost certain to be carried to excess, resulting in a disorganized and undisciplined condition in the minds of the children, and that the motion picture habit distracts from reading and study and draws children from libraries. Public opinion actively supports the motion picture; the picture theater is the greatest competitor of the public library, and the very people whom the library serves the least are the mass of men and women who patronize these theaters. Such being the case, it appears that the library has an opportunity here which should be taken up and developed. The library, under fortunate conditions, may secure the cooperation of the theater managers. The more advanced realize that the educational value of the theater is emphasized by cooperation with the library, they are well-disposed toward the public library, and if properly approached are willing to be of more or less assistance.

Some of them will run slides advertising the library between their films or at the program. These slides cost about \$1.50 to prepare. It is necessary to have a card lettered by a sign painter before the glass slide is made. The wording on the slide should be very brief, three or four lines to attract and create a desire to use the library, three or four lines to tell of the location and hours, if necessary. Every word is important. Where the library has a number of slides out, a record should be kept, so that they may be changed from theater to theater every two or three weeks. By placing the following words at the bottom of the slides, we have had good success in Los Angeles: "This theater gladly aids library extension". We now have about thirty slides in use, about half of them in the neighborhood of the branch libraries. When films of an educational nature are being featured at a theater the library has another opportunity. If Scott's "Lady of the Lake" is on the program, for example, special slides can be run advertising Scott's works, books about Scotland and the like. In one city the theater and library worked together in conducting a prize essay contest on "As you Like it". While some of the essays were submitted by high

school students, many were written by men and women to whom writing compositions was a decided novelty. The library was able to bring them in a pleasant and profitable manner to that which is its aim — the careful study of a great and inspiring author.

Another recent development in library publicity is the use of store windows for the display of books. This is a very effective method, and one which incurs little expense. It attracts wide attention of a constructive sort, and brings new persons to the library. To secure the interest and cooperation of the managers and employees of the store itself is alone worth while, and can generally be accomplished. The most difficult feature connected with window exhibits is to convince the owners of the large stores that they are not setting any precedent which may cause them later regrets. Most of them complain of being besieged with requests for this privilege. In Los Angeles a "Library week on Broadway" was arranged, in which eight stores contributed parts of or complete windows. The books selected were appropriate to the store in question. The city's largest grocery store showed books on house-keeping, cooking, and the chemistry of foods. The city's largest furniture store showed books of house plans, decoration, period styles, and a group of music scores and books arranged near a piano. One of the department stores furnished figures of a man and his wife reading at the evening table, with their little girl seated on the floor in the foreground, reading "Mother Goose". Around the sides of the space were groups of books on business, mechanics, and housekeeping. Appropriate cards in each window served to explain the books and the use of the library. During the week of the display the stores gave out special circulars containing condensed information about the library. Similar exhibits of farm and garden books in a seed store, children's books and other special displays have been made.

After all, the best form of library publicity is that which comes from satisfied readers. It is while making the worthy effort to improve internal methods and reach perfection in the mechanism that we forget to keep our hand on the pulse of the people outside.

The departments which work directly with the public are the means for interpreting the public's wishes, and making the mechanism respond. The information as to what the people are asking for, what they are expecting in choice of books, convenience in using the library, equipment, must be transmitted immediately to the proper source to secure action, if the public is to be satisfied.

Word-of-mouth publicity is the most powerful of all, and constructive publicity depends on the reader's feeling that he is receiving good treatment. The public are seemingly glad to endure rules, or inconvenient service, if only they think the library staff is doing its best or is working under some handicap. But the favorite complaints — "Never can find it in"; "They are so slow about getting new novels"; "So much red tape to go through", — spread with appalling influence to people who receive no counter-stimulant to use the library, and these complaints can easily nullify any efforts at printed publicity. All departments of the library, therefore, ought to be aware of each other's aims and methods, so that when necessary they can and gladly will depart from routine to meet the emergencies which often arise in dealing with the public, and feel that, whatever their part in the library's work, its goal is the satisfied reader beyond the delivery or reference desk. If the members of all departments are on the watch for news items, book reviews, and other clues by which readers' requests may be anticipated, and if they can see that the information takes the form of "rush" book orders, short cuts through the catalogue department, quick returns from the bindery, then the large class of people who stay away from the library because it is not as prompt as a department store, for instance, will become enthusiastic library patrons. Good service can accomplish more than organized publicity, but the two together are irresistible.

Let us take ourselves to the top of some high office building, where we can see our city spread before us, or climb the hill overlooking our country town. This is our field of endeavor. The library building, with its merry hum of activity, is but the means to accomplish an end. We must forget the routine and see the homes, the shops, and the offices at our feet, reaching into the horizon. We must listen to the sounds of the people at work. Every home, every shop, every office is an opportunity awaiting us, calling for the message of the books*).

Applied science department.

In the year 1910, while the St. Louis Public Library was still in temporary quarters, the more recent technical reference books

*) **Perry, Everett R.** Aims and methods of library publicity. *Library journal*, 39: 262-66.

Dr. Perry is librarian of Los Angeles Public Library.

in the library, some three hundred in number, were taken from the regular place in the reference collection and placed on a convenient shelf at one end of the reference room. To these were added the reports of the United States Patent Office, and an assistant was detailed to take charge of the section. This marked the beginning of the applied science department.

The original plans for the present new building made no provision for the segregation of technical books, and it was therefore necessary to modify these plans in order adequately to house the new department. The newspaper reading room, on the ground floor, was divided into two parts, and the north room, which immediately joins the stack and is connected by stairway with the reference department above, was selected.

The applied science department is both a reading-room and a reference department, and, indeed, to a very small extent, a loan department, there being special conditions under which certain books in the collection are issued for short periods to responsible persons. The two main functions are: (1) to serve as an information bureau for the practical man, who has a problem to solve or a specific inquiry, and (2) to supply these same practical men with the latest periodicals and books on their pet subjects. The collection falls into four general divisions: technical reference books (including bound periodicals), current periodicals (including state and government bulletins), United States Patent Office reports, clippings and pamphlets (including trade literature).

Practically all reference material in the "Useful arts" classes has been shelved in the applied science room, with the exception of books relating to medicine and domestic economy. A considerable amount of theoretical science, principally chemistry and geology, has also been included, necessary, as it often is, in connection with practical problems. Expressed in terms of the Dewey classification, we may say that the 600's are included *en masse*, with the exception of 610—619 and 640—649; and all material in the 500's that is likely to be of practical value in connection with the 600's — principally 550—559. This arrangement has made it possible to keep together the theoretical and the applied chemistry classes, the geology and the mining classes, and so on.

It is intended to make the applied science department as independent of the loan department as is consistent with good sense and economy. This means that much material not classed strictly as "reference" has been added. In some cases this material was

already included in the loan collection of the library. The application of the term "reference" to a use of books, rather than a class of books is here being widely made, and if experience shows that a brief, untechnical treatise on plumbing can be used to good advantage as a reference book it is placed on the reference shelves, — duplicated if necessary.

Most of the recent additions to the department have been in the lines of agriculture, engineering and industrial chemistry. The agricultural material now being received consists chiefly of government bulletins and reports, bound. Regarding the two last-named classes of books, it may be said that St. Louis conditions seem to have occasioned a greater demand for information on these subjects than on any others.

All bound volumes of technical magazines and trade papers are included in the applied science department, and are shelved in the stack nearby. Bound bulletins, reports and society transactions are shelved in the reading-room proper, for the present. Special effort has been made to keep up to date in the matter of binding state and government bulletins, and in most cases the sets on the shelves run to the current year.

Over 100 current magazines and trade papers are received regularly. This includes a number of the best class of "house organs", which, by the way, are not to be underestimated in value. It is expected that this magazine collection will soon be considerably enlarged, thereby increasing this valuable means of getting the practical man into the way of using the department once a week. In addition to the magazines, the department receives about 120 state and government reports and bulletins, including those which later are bound and put upon the shelves. The collection also includes older incomplete sets that cannot be bound and that formerly were stored away and rendered inaccessible.

This fourth division is one on which considerable effort is being spent at the present time. It is being widely realized that material of the above-mentioned sort is of extreme value when properly prepared and arranged in the library, and when the attention of the proper class of readers is directed to it. It is possible, however, to waste much time over the preparation of a useless collection of pamphlets and clippings, and great care therefore should be taken in judicious selection.

A clipping collection should be composed of material that if left in the periodical or book would be inaccessible. Periodicals

covered by the Engineering Index or other standard technical indices have, therefore, been clipped with the fact in mind that the principle articles in them will always be accessible, whether cut out or not.

Other periodicals are clipped more freely. The work is done with a view to the preservation of the following classes of items:

1. Articles about new inventions and processes.
2. Current engineering works, such as the Panama Canal or the Keokuk Dam.
3. Technical items of local interest — the city waterworks, street railway construction, etc.

4. Information on the latest mineral or agricultural production statistics of states and countries. (Periodicals generally supply figures that are a year later than those found in published books).

5. Any other items covering subjects that for some reason are covered only by a meager literature.

It will be seen that a clipping collection of this description needs to be revised each year, in order that it may be kept free of material out of date.

The treatment of trade literature is another problem of moment. Trade literature is of all kinds — from the advertisement postcard to the technical treatise given away only to favored individuals and libraries. We may divide this material into three classes:

1. Bound volumes of catalogue good enough to put into permanent form, these often consisting of instructive works by experts, covering important subjects.

2. Catalogues of some value, but not worth preserving after a revised issue has been received.

3. Circulars and small pamphlets of little instructive value.

Material in the first class is treated as any other books are — accessioned, catalogued, and placed on the shelves. Notable examples of this class are the bulletins of the Westinghouse Electric Co., and the General Electric Co., and some of the publications of the Baldwin Locomotive Works.

The result of seven months' work, since the opening of the new library building, have been most gratifying, the public having shown its appreciation of a "practical man's reading and reference room". A department of this sort can be greatly helped by publicity, and efforts have been made to bring home to the citizens of St. Louis the fact of its existence and its willingness to serve. An attractive poster, setting forth the advantages of the department, has been prepared and copies sent to various industrial plants, trade schools

and library delivery stations. It is strongly felt that the applied science department not only receives benefit from publicity, but must have publicity, needing, as it does, so many persons who have never used the library regularly*).

The civics room.

One of the most recent experiments in specialization within the public library has brought into being so-called Civic Rooms. They exist in name, so far as I have been able to ascertain, in but four libraries, namely Chicago, Cincinnati, Detroit, and Louisville . . .

The Chicago Public Library, which opened its civic rooms, May 1, 1912, furnishes the best concrete example of what we are discussing. It is also a proved success, so that any criticisms of it or suggestions regarding it are themselves open to question on the ground of being theoretical and untried. Its plan of operation is fully described in "Chicago Commerce" for April 26, 1912 (pages 23—27), in an address given by Mr. Legler before the Ways and Means Committee of the Chicago Association of Commerce just prior to the formal opening of the room. "This department", says Mr. Legler, "is to be called, for want of a better term perhaps, the civics department of the library, and it will aim to center in one room the best and latest and the most-up-to-date material which the library has among its resources affecting education, business and civics."

After three years of work with this civics room Miss Edith Kammerling, who has it in charge, outlines its present scope in the following detailed and effective manner:

The present scope of the public library civics department:

- a) National affairs.
- b) State affairs, especially Illinois.
- c) Municipal affairs; as:
 - Municipal dance halls,
 - Commission form of govt.,
 - Non-partisan elections,
 - Smoke nuisance,
 - Parks and playgrounds,
 - Garbage disposal,

*) **Bostwick, Andrew.** Applied science department of the St. Louis Public Library. Library Journal, 37: 671-72.

Mr. Bostwick was formerly head of the Applied Science Department in the St. Louis Public Library.

- Municipal markets,
- Social surveys,
- Subways,
- Jitney bus,
- Railroad terminals,
- Municipal ice plants.
- d/* Political, social and economic; as:
 - Initiative and referendum,
 - Woman suffrage,
 - Immigration,
 - Child labor,
 - Housing,
 - Social settlements,
 - Syndicalism,
 - Cost of living,
 - Moving picture shows,
 - Blue sky laws,
 - Mothers' pensions,
 - Juvenile courts,
 - Open air schools,
 - Social centers.
- e/* Topics of current interest; as:
 - Chicago boys' court,
 - Delinquent girls' court,
 - Public defender,
 - Effemination question in the public schools,
 - Juvenile-adult offender,
 - Paying fines on the installment plan,
 - Three-fourths decision in jury trials,
 - Boards of public welfare,
 - School savings banks,
 - Recall,
 - Short ballot,
 - Minimum wage,
 - Employer's liability.
 - Employer's welfare institutions,
 - Labor unions.
 - Co-operation,
 - International arbitration,
 - Garden cities,
 - Child welfare,
 - Reformatories,
 - Pension systems,
 - Industrial education.
 - Unemployment.

This is truly an adherence to and a splendid development of Mr. Legler's original plans for a department concentrating the current data on educational, business and civic problems.

From the published reports of the Chicago Public Library it appears that the civics room was used during its first year even

more extensively than was anticipated, having received 43,187 recorded visitors who consulted over 40,000 books and boxes of pamphlets and some 17,000 magazines and 6,500 volumes of bound newspapers. The second year's attendance was nearly 10,000 greater than the first and the increase in material used was greater in proportion. The Chicago Library's report for 1913—1914 (pages 31—33) furnishes further light on this subject, and presents an interesting selection from the thousands of questions asked...

Whether a civics room is to be in the main library building or apart from it is, to my mind, an important factor in determining its scope; and the size and location of the main library building are fundamental considerations making any generalization almost impossible. However, for a civics room with a main building in a city already having the more specialized municipal reference library in the City Hall, I fail to see where Chicago's plan can be improved upon. With a main library so located that a separate civics room in a more central location would attract a large patronage, my present inclination would be to combine government, social welfare and business in one department, but I agree with Mr. Wheeler that where an industrial department is possible in addition, then business, industrial, and technical subjects should form one group, and government and social welfare another. If we could place our ideal main building and City Hall next to each other in a central business location our problem would be much simplified.

The three types of library work, municipal reference, civics room and business branch which may or may not be properly assigned to a civics room, are confronted by many of the same unsolved or only partially solved problems. The next step, then, is to attempt these problems. One who has for some time left the field of special library work, though his interest in it remains, would be unqualified to offer solutions, but perhaps a small service can be rendered those most concerned by furnishing here a collective statement of these problems, and an indication in some cases of the direction in which a solution may perhaps lie. Discussion may clear up some matters at once.

From those actually confronted by them I have secured this list of difficulties:

1. The replacing of uncatalogued pamphlet material stolen from pamphlet files (Would a brief entry shelf list be worth time?).

2. Getting in contact with the latest pamphlet material. (Public Affairs Information Service approaching a solution).

3. To expand the Wisconsin classification (cf. Los Angeles Public Library "Bulletin" for May 1915).

4. Administering a special library within a general library, especially securing prompt and efficient action in ordering and securing material.

5. The need of expert knowledge in so many fields of work.

6. Securing specific information on the practice of cities with reference to practical problems; city records give insufficient data, particularly cost data.

7. Locating fugitive material in time to secure it before it is out of print.

8. Securing reports from other cities. Permanent central distributing agency needed.

9. Lack of promptness in publishing municipal reports and poor indexes.

10. Difficulty of obtaining and indexing current and recent ordinances.

11. Do municipal reference libraries attempt to index ordinances of their own city? To what extent index ordinances of other cities? Inadequate indexes to municipal magazines and municipal subjects in technical and general magazines.

12. Securing questions from city officials in time to make the necessary research, especially when correspondence is involved.

13. The best method of calling the attention of officials and civic workers to new material for them.

May we not say that it is fairly clear that the library has a definite place in the civic development of the American community? It is certainly responding to the public demand for an instrumentality that shall lead to a more enlightened and more efficient citizenship. The civics room in the library is one means we have evolved for this use and if properly advertised and developed it will become the people's school and will tend to create an effective check on radical self-government and an effective incentive toward true democracy*).

*) **Kaiser, John B.** The civics room. A. L. A. Bulletin, 9 : 163-69, 1915, Excerpts from article.

Mr. Kaiser is librarian of the Oakland (California). Public Library.

The departmental library.

The arguments generally advanced in favor of the system are these:

1. The instructor needs to be able to refer, at a moment's notice, to any book relating to his subject.
2. The system enables the instructor to keep a more careful watch over the reading of his students.
3. The best interests of the library demand that each division of the library shall be directly under the eye of the men most interested in it, that is to say, the instructors of the various departments; that they should direct its growth and watch over its interests.

That the first and second of these arguments have great weight cannot be denied, but with a properly constructed library building and more careful administration the requirements of both instructor and student can be met quite as well by a central system.

It is, of course, quite impossible for each instructor to have in his office all the books necessary for his work. The duplication necessary for this purpose would be impracticable even for the most wealthy university. He must, therefore, go from his office or classroom to the department library and search for the book himself. With the confusion which generally reigns in a library of this sort, and with the lack of effective registration of loans, this is quite often a matter of some difficulty.

The third argument in favor of the departmental library system is of a different nature. Is the librarian or the professor best qualified to direct the growth and watch over the interests of the different departments of the library? So far as I know, this argument is given more consideration at Chicago than anywhere else. It may be true, in certain cases, that the professor has the greater qualification for this work, but when this is the case it argues that the professor is an exceptional one or that the university has been unfortunate in the selection of its librarian.

It is quite needless to say that the librarian should be in constant conference with the teaching force regarding purchases, but that he should delegate all of his powers of purchase in any given field, admits of the gravest doubt. Laude, in his recent work on the university library system of Germany, attributes a great deal of the success of those libraries to the fact that they are independent and autonomous institutions, enjoying a much greater measure of

freedom than is accorded to any similar American institution. Too many professors are apt to buy books in their special field and slight other lines of research in their own subject. For example, a zoologist, who is doing research work along the lines of embryology, is very apt to overload the collection at that point and neglect other equally important lines.

Again, very few instructors, even granting them the qualifications necessary for the work, have the time or patience for it. If the amount appropriated to the department is at all large, a considerable portion of the sum is quite frequently unexpended at the end of the year. Some interesting tables, prepared by Mr. Winsor for his report for the year 1894-95, show that in seven selected departments the amount of books ordered, including continuations, was only about 50% of the appropriation, plus one quarter of the allowance for orders not filled. While this proportion would probably not hold good in all departments or in all places, it exhibits an almost uniform tendency and a tendency which must be corrected if a well-rounded-out library is to be secured.

The system of departmental control is very sure to create a feeling of departmental ownership, a feeling that the books, bought out of the moneys appropriated to a particular library, should remain permanently in that library, and that any one from outside who wishes to use the books is more or less of an intruder. Pin any one of these men down, and they will admit that the books are for the use of all, but the feeling exists, notwithstanding, and is the cause of constant friction.

The departmental library renders the books difficult of access. If this library is large enough to warrant the setting apart of a separate room for its use, this room can seldom be open for as large a portion of the day as the central library, and when it is open the books cannot be obtained as readily by the great body of the students as if they were in a central building. Most students are working in several lines at once. They are compelled, by this system, to go from one room to another, and to accommodate themselves to differing hours of opening and to varying rules for the use of the books. Then, too, it frequently happens in the case of small libraries that the books are kept in the office of the head of the department, and can only be consulted when he is in his office and at liberty. The difficulty is here greatly increased. I know of cases where even the instructors in the same department have found difficulty in getting at the books, and the library was,

in effect, a private library for the head professor, supported out of university funds. If instructors cannot use the books, how can the student be expected to do so?

There is a sentiment, false, perhaps, but nevertheless existing in the minds of many students, that any attempt to use the books under these circumstances is an endeavor to curry favor with the professor. This feeling does not exist in connection with the use of the books at a central library.

If a book in a departmental library is needed by a student in another department, he must either go to the department and put the custodian to the inconvenience of looking it up for him, or he must wait at the central library while a messenger goes for the book. His need for the book must be very pressing before he will do either.

If the different fields of knowledge were sharply defined, the departmental system might be a practicable one, but such is not the case. The psychologist needs books bearing on philosophy, sociology, zoology, and physics, the sociologist gathers his data from almost the whole field of human knowledge, the economist must use books on history and the historian books on economics. The system hampers him exceedingly in the selection and use of his material, or it compels the university to purchase a large body of duplicate material, and restricts, by so much, the growth of the real resources of the library.

The system, it seems to me, induces narrowness of vision and a sort of specialization which is anything but scientific. Trending in the same direction is the separation of the books, in any given field, into two categories. The undergraduate may need some such selection, but any student who has gone beyond the elements of his subjects should have at his command the entire resources of the library. The needs of the elementary student can be met by direct reference to certain books, or by setting aside the volumes required as separate reference books and allowing free access to them.

A large amount of our most valuable material is found in the publications of scientific and literary societies and in periodicals. In many cases these must be kept at the central library. They will be much more frequently read if the readers are using the central library and availing themselves of the information given in the catalogue.

From the administrative point of view, there is nothing impossible in the organization of the departmental system provided

that finances of the library admit of the increased expenditure. As Mr. Bishop has pointed out in a recent number of the *Library Journal*, the element of cost seems to have been utterly left out of consideration in the recent discussion at the University of Chicago. It is possible that, with the immense resources of that institution, they may be able to ignore that factor, but most of us are compelled to reduce administrative expenditures to the lowest point consistent with good work.

Aside from the cost of the duplication of books already noted, necessitated by the division of the books among the different departments, there are the items of space and labor to be considered. It needs no arguments to show that there is a great economy of space gained by the consolidation of all libraries, with the exceptions previously referred to, into one central building. An entire room is frequently given up to a departmental library of three or four hundred volumes, when a few extra shelves and possibly a slight increase in the seating capacity of the reading room would accommodate it in the central building. The cost of maintenance of heating and of lighting is also undoubtedly greater under the departmental arrangement.

The greatest increase in expense is, however, in the item of service. In order properly to control a branch of this sort an employee of the library must be in constant attendance. The duties and responsibilities of such a position are so small that only the lowest paid grade of service can be employed with economy. The amount necessary to pay the salaries of such persons could, with much greater advantage to the whole institution, be used for the employment of a few specialists, highly trained in different lines, who would act as reference librarians in their respective fields. Our American libraries are, as a class, compared with those of foreign universities, singularly deficient in this quality of assistance. Sooner or later we must supply this lack, and very move which tends in another direction must be examined with care.

The university library exists for the whole university — all of it for the whole university. In an ideal condition, every book in it should be available, at a moment's notice, if it is not actually in use. This should be our aim, and it should be from this viewpoint that we should judge the efficiency of our administration and the value of any proposed change*).

*) Gerould, J. T. The departmental library. *Library journal*, 62: 47-49.

Mr. Gerould is librarian of Princeton University.

High school branches.

If there has been a failure in the proper development of the branch library in connection with the high school, it has been brought about by a misunderstanding on the part of the librarian of the actual needs of the teacher, lack of sympathy on the part of the teacher for the work the library is trying to do, or, perhaps, failure on the part of one or the other to co-operate in the work. This is placing the blame where it belongs — on the individual rather than on the idea.

One of the greatest difficulties to overcome has been that of different management — the schools under one body and the library under another. This is not always a source of trouble, but frequently is a cause for disagreement if not real dissension.

At the risk of being accused of talking on personal matters, I shall attempt to outline the plan just put into operation in Kansas City. In Kansas City the public library is supported by and under the control of the Board of Education. For the purpose of the experiment, this makes for ideal conditions. In planning the high-school buildings, in addition to the study halls and school referency library, provisions were made for district branch libraries. The library quarters just completed have an actual shelf capacity of 16,000 volumes, fully supplied with modern library equipment, susceptible of enlargement. The library is situated in the corner of the building, with a main outside entrance, distinct from the school entrance, but with a door leading to a main hall of the school proper. For all intents and purposes, it is a complete branch library, while, at the same time, it will answer every purpose of the special school library. It was planned and will be operated to meet the requirements voiced by Mary E. Hall, librarian, Girls' High-School, Brooklyn, in the Report of the Committee on High School Libraries, made to this section two years ago.

In the management of this branch of the public library, it is proposed during school time to use the reading-room for student use from 8:30 A. M. to 12:30 P. M., in periods of 45 minutes, by classes of 50 pupils each, classes or pupils being assigned by the heads of the school departments. Thus 250 pupils will use the Library daily, doing the work required as well as acquiring a knowledge of how to use a library. And as to the importance of this, let me quote the reflections of that eminent teacher-librarian, the late Dr. Canfield:

"Instruction in the most efficient use of a library should form as important a part of the curriculum as instruction in language or in history. It will exert more influence on the pupils' career than any two subjects in the course of study. The library, rather than the school, makes possible and probable a continuation of intellectual activity and progress after school life is finished."

This specific service will in no way interfere with the use of the library by the general public. Special tables will be reserved for the usual library patrons, but little use will be made of these. An investigation of branch use in a number of cities shows that small demand is made for books by the general public in the morning hours.

Aside from rendering the cultural service required in the high-school work, with trained library workers in charge, it is the fervent hope and belief that still another good will come from the close co-operation — that of increasing the number of pupils attending the high school after graduating from the grades, thru familiarity with it from a frequent use of the library.

On the score of economy and efficiency, much is hoped for the new branch. The pupils in the high-school have at their service a much larger collection of books than would otherwise be possible. Many titles are available that would hardly be found on the shelves of a high-school library, because of their limited use — books which a general community use will demand. Any high-school teacher or librarian can tell of many titles which are seriously needed in some studies for a week or two, the recommendation for purchase of which is held from the school authorities for fear of the charge of extravagance. Naturally, many of this sort of books will be found on the shelves of the progressive branch.

Another value to the high-school of this sort of a branch library, which should not be lost sight of, is the broad, general interest of the public in its work brought about by contact with its various activities. In this instance, it is hoped and believed that the old saying will be reversed, that "familiarity will breed" support and enlarged use.

A point which should receive passing consideration is the fact that four or five such branch library buildings may be erected at the cost of one separate and distinct average branch building. The cost of operation and service shows nearly the same economy. All of which means more and better books, more competent service, therefore more satisfactory results and more lasting good.

So surely is the department of education of Kansas City of this belief, that a second high-school building now under course of erection contains just such a branch library as is herein briefly described. In addition, the plan is carried still farther and three large grade-school buildings, to be completed within the year, provide for similar branches. One of these, in a district peopled largely by foreigners, a thirty-room building, contains a swimming-pool, auditorium, and roof garden. And of course the library has a good corner, and will have a share in the development of a new brand of citizenship*).

Branch libraries; functions and resources.

I am in fair agreement with others if I call a branch a subordinate and auxiliary library with a considerable fixed collection of books, a delivery and deposit station an agency of the central library with a shifting collection of books which are circulated directly from the station, but with no permanent books, or very few. It would be possible to call a deposit and delivery station a branch, since it has books upon its shelves, but this is not generally done. Still more, such a station, with the addition of reference books and a very small permanent collection — say of 1,000 volumes, — may be called a branch, and this is done in some libraries.

A branch should be a distributing agency for the central library. By this means the branch resources are supplemented and its efficiency increased. It is relieved from carrying books on its shelves which it would otherwise find necessary. In the most effective type of system, central and branches are so linked together that the same borrower's card is good everywhere and books taken at one point may be returned at any other in the system. The central library is the clearing house. This arrangement is possible only with a daily wagon service. But, further, the branch should be an advertising agency for the central library, making its resources known to the local constituency. For no branch ought ever to consider itself a substitute for the main library.

In its more independent functions the branch should not only be a reservoir of books, large enough to answer the reasonable

*) **Wright, Purd B.** High school branches of public libraries. N. E. A. Proceedings and Addresses. 1914, 52: 820-23.

Mr. **Wright** is librarian of Kansas City Public Library.

general demands of a community, but also in many cases a reservoir of books for schools and a distributing center with regard to them. Duplicates should be multiplied for this service . . . If the great aim of a branch is to enlarge its constituency, the most effective means is a system that will attract and secure the school children of its own district.

The churches should, of course, be included. Such a close relationship is good for the branch and good for the institution, and co-operation has been found to be a remarkably stimulating word when used in this sense. There should be compiled a list of the educational institutions of the city, arranged according to the districts represented by the branches, and each branch should be held responsible for new information. In fact the branch should be the intellectual center of the district as far as possible . . . Large branches are expensive, and are practicable only at the more important centers, but they may be supplemented by reading-rooms or small branches at the lesser centers of business and population, located also with reference to the steam and electric railroads and the flow of travel. The ideal in a large city is to have these occur at intervals of half a mile. People will not go so far as a mile or even three-quarters of a mile.

With regard to the resources of a branch in books, it might at first appear that the greater they are the better. But considerations of cost, space, and time make it desirable to keep most collections within moderate limits. Every superfluous book hinders the efficiency of the branch.

What is the proper number of volumes for a branch collection? Mr. Putnam considered 15,000 volumes to be the limit for a branch in an important center, and with a circulation of 50,000 volumes or more yearly. A new branch should have several thousand less to begin with. This applies only to branches which draw daily from a central library. In order to keep this limit, or any limit, if there is a plentiful supply of new books, replacements must be carefully considered and with some system, and once every five years or so the branch must be weeded out. There will not, however, usually be 15,000 titles in a branch, for from 1,000 to 2,000 volumes will be duplicates.

The problem of the proper proportion of the different classes in such a collection has not yet, so far as I know, been worked out in any system of branch libraries with a central delivery, with sufficient thoroughness to justify dogmatism. There should be a

supply of juvenile books adequate to the use, which is probably from 35 to 40 per cent of the whole use, and half of the juvenile books may properly be fiction. There should be from 400 to 600 volumes of reference books, and these should always include a separate children's reference collection.

In the branch collection there will necessarily be a fixed element and a shifting element, the latter represented by the current purchases which must be made in order to retain the interest of the public, or books which were for a time the best but have been superseded . . . Experience has proved that the superfluous fiction, at least, will find a use if it is shifted from one to another of the smaller branches and displayed on open shelves.

Each branch has one or more peculiarities which must now and then be taken into account, so that each must have a few books in addition to the common stock . . . If seventy-five per cent of the titles in a branch collection at any given time were the same in various places, the margin of twenty-five per cent, would be sufficient for local and individual need and choice*).

Branch libraries.

Provision must be made for salaries for a branch library, books and running expenses. If the library is to be a very tiny one and can be administered by one person working part-time at the central library, then the item of salary will be small. But if the library is to have a staff of two or three people, besides a part-time janitor and some hours of page service, then the salary budget must be seriously considered. This item alone may easily run up to \$ 5000 for the year.

The second item for serious thought is the matter of book equipment. Shall the branch library begin with a collection of new books provided, we shall say, with a sum of \$ 2000? This would be sufficient to buy a few of the new and popular books and a given number of old standard necessary titles. But even \$ 2000 worth of books will not go far if the little branch is to grow steadily from the beginning. How much borrowing of books may the little branch do? How freely is the main library willing to lend?

*) **Ward, Langdon L.** Branch libraries: functions and resources. *Library journal*, 27: C 42-46, 1902.

Mr. Ward was formerly supervisor of branches, Boston Public Library.

A new branch cannot exist without the privilege of borrowing from the parent institution, but restrictions must be made. There is serious loss of time when the book requested by the branch stands on the shelf waiting for delivery day. Can the library afford to let an expensive book, of which it may have only one copy, lie idle? How many times might a popular book be read by patrons at Main if it were not withdrawn repeatedly during a given period of time in answer to branch requests? Shall the branch requests be filled as received at the central library or shall they be refused until all reserves at Main are filled? This lending between the central library and the branches is a problem that demands a great deal of patience and generosity on the part of the main library and the provision for the branch book fund should be sufficient, so that the main library will not feel overburdened by the demands that an active and successful little branch is sure to make upon it.

After salaries and books, provision must be made for the current periodicals. This means an expenditure of something like \$ 50, which will provide 18 well assorted magazines and will also involve the question of binding one or more titles for permanent use. When is a branch large enough to justify any binding of periodicals? How can a little branch expect to do good high-school work without a Readers' Guide and a few bound magazines accumulated year by year? How can an adequate collection of reference tools be provided?

The three items already mentioned involve the largest expenditure in establishing a branch library, but the various small items of current expense soon mount up. Delivery service may be a large or small item, depending upon the city and the distance, the street car service, the number of page boys available and the fact that the main library may have a truck or a Ford or at least a suit case which the boy may use in transporting books and magazines back and forth.

After a survey of all possible expenses, the final question must be answered: Is it better to put all of this money into the main library to strengthen its service or is a branch justified by the additional number of people who will be served?

This brings us back to the beginning of the problem again — Is a small library justified? Do the geographical divisions of the city demand it? Will the different groups of people make use of it? Is the book stock sufficient to give good service? Are there as many new books being added constantly and are there as many of the

best books of the world on the shelves as a library should have to be worthy of its name?

After all is said and done, in the final analysis, the success of the branch depends upon the librarian and her staff. Does the salary budget provide for a well-educated, trained, live librarian who is a good advertiser, who knows her books, who meets her people well, who selects her books well and knows what is needed for her community? To provide such a librarian and members of the staff who shall give real assistance in developing the work of the branch library is the last and most difficult accomplishment in building up a branch library, whose existence shall be justified by its service *).

Class-room libraries.

A classroom library is a collection of books consisting of twenty-five to fifty volumes selected to meet the needs of pupils in any given grade of the elementary schools.

Classroom libraries had their beginning when enterprising public librarians conceived the plan of sending collections of books selected from the shelves of the public library to schools at a distance from a library center.

There are two generally accepted methods of managing classroom libraries. In one, the public library provides a duplicate school collection from which the classroom libraries are made up and sent to schools requesting this type of library service . . . The teacher may call for collection A, keep these books for two or three months and have them exchanged for collection B, and this in turn for collection C. This system is usually referred to as the Block system.

The "fixed collection" system of managing classroom libraries is becoming increasingly popular. By this plan the best books for pupils in elementary schools are carefully selected and graded with a view to supplying from thirty-five to forty books for each A and B division of a grade. These collections are assigned to the respective divisions and remain a unit or fixed collection to be used as long as the books last by pupils of the grade for which they were selected.

*) **Kennedy, Helen T.** When is a branch library justified? *Libraries*, 31: 1-4.
Miss **Kennedy** is assistant librarian, Los Angeles Public Library.

The fixed collection system of classroom libraries means the selection of from thirty-five to forty of the *best* books for any given grade. The Block system requires two or three times as many titles. The wider range of titles necessitates the inclusion of a greater number of second rate books.

One book each week per pupil is enough. There are only from thirty-five to forty weeks when books may be issued to pupils during any school year. The pupil therefore has a ample supply where forty books make up his classroom collection.

Transportation of books involves careful checking and recording, wrapping books into compact packages or providing shipping containers and rechecking upon receipt at the office. The actual cost of transportation is expensive. The fixed collection remains in its classroom from year to year. Only discarded books or those sent for repair are withdrawn and later replaced. Experience has shown that books are quite safe in the school building during July and August if they are locked in the classroom cupboards with which most schools are now supplied.

... The argument is sometimes advanced that the Fixed collection plan limits the choice of books on the part of the pupil. The same argument might be applied to the courses of study which quite definitely prescribe the program of studies for the various grades in all the schools of a community. The wise teacher knows how to adapt the courses to the needs of her pupils and still keep their studies in line with the general plan. Similarly the element of choice of books is not materially impaired where children are restricted to a somewhat limited but choice selection. There is the satisfaction of knowing that no child can go far wrong in his choice, that practically every book is good for him.

The book selection is vitally important. The third, fourth, fifth and sixth grades will benefit most. Many communities do not attempt to supply the first and second grades, as the main purpose of classroom libraries is to supply children with books for home reading. The pupils in the first and second grade have not mastered the mechanics of reading sufficiently to profit by the more general reading supplied by classroom libraries. They are best served by the attractive supplementary readers which progressive schools supply for classroom use.

By the time pupils enter the seventh and eighth grades their extended reading interests are met by so wide a range of available material that it is difficult adequately to supply in the limits of

classroom libraries. Pupils are now in the Junior High School group and should have access to the general collection of the school library.

In selecting the books for the four grades, the third, fourth, fifth and sixth, it should be constantly remembered that the purpose of the classroom library is to promote habits of reading, that the books, therefore, must awaken and hold the interest of readers and that their function of giving pleasure must outweigh their secondary purpose of yielding profit. It is not the purpose of classroom libraries to correlate closely with the course of study. Text books and supplementary readers do that. Classroom libraries are for home use. It does not follow that to be interesting the selection must be limited to fairy tales and story books. Each collection should be a cross section of the various types of children's literature, including animal stories, books on how to make things, biography, history, etc. There should be a generous proportion, however, of the books which appeal to the imagination. Textbooks and informational books have no place in classroom libraries.

The grading of the books is second in importance to the selection. As a rule librarians select books that are too *difficult* for the pupils to grasp easily. Their grading is influenced by the choice of books made by the children who come to the public library. These are usually children whose reading tastes are developed beyond that of the greater number whose reading habits are still unformed. It is well to consult with teachers of the respective grades in the matter of grading books. They do know the capacities of children's minds and a constantly increasing number of teachers also know children's books.

A record of the books belonging to the school should be kept either in an accession book or on cards. Accession books may be secured from library supply firms. Ownership imprint should be neatly stamped on the title page and on the bottom margin of a page in the body of the book.

Records of books issued to pupils for home reading must be kept if the greatest good to the greatest number of pupils is to be achieved. Cards especially ruled and printed for this purpose may be secured from library supply houses. These cards are 4×6 inches in size and have two holes punched at the bottom. A cheaper record form which is quite as useful, is in loose leaf sheets having print and ruling similar to that on cards.

The author and the title are entered at the top of the card. There are spaces for the borrower's name and the date when the

book is due. One card is made for each book. The grade for which the book is intended is marked in the upper right hand corner of the card. Just below the grade the accession number is marked. The accession number is necessary in order to identify each individual book belonging to the school.

A monthly report of the circulation of the books in each class having a library should be sent to the principal who in turn sends the total for the school to the central office. A monthly report is a great stimulant to activity, and is an indication of the rate of dividend on the investment of funds in classroom libraries. By careful planning the mechanics of managing classroom libraries may be reduced to a minimum, and the rate of return on the investment increased to the maximum. The returns cannot well be measured in tangible terms, but if we have faith in the power of books to affect the thoughts and actions of children then we must know that no other investment of school or library funds bears so rich a dividend in the development of character as does that spent for classroom libraries*).

Class-room libraries, York, Pa.

The public school has developed to meet the various educational needs of children that cannot be met conveniently in the home. The only subjects taught in the first public schools were the "three R's". Later the social sciences and nature study appeared. Music, drawing, various forms of hand work, hygiene, physical education, and many less important subjects have been added to enrich the curriculum. The modern public school to-day is the center of all the varied physical, mental and social activities which contribute to the making of efficient citizens. In fact the school has widened its scope of service until it has become a real community center.

Library instruction and definite experience in library work should be a part of every progressive school curriculum. There are several specific aims to be sought in this type of work. I will mention but two.

First, children should be taught how to use library tools and how quickly to look up reference material. No student can become

*) **Zachert, Adeline B.** Classroom libraries. *Library journal*, 49: 877-80, 1924.

Miss Zachert is director of school libraries, state department of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

self-helpful until he has learned to use index and reference volumes intelligently. Next to the possession of a desirable bit of knowledge is knowing where and how to secure it with a minimum of effort. A student cannot be resourceful in the most elementary forms of research unless he knows how to use a reference library.

Second, children should be stimulated to read extensively. "Reading maketh a full man" was an observation of a wise Englishman more than two centuries ago. It is just as true today. The motion picture and the radio have great educational value, but breadth and depth of understanding must finally come from a combination of reading and meditation. The student who has formed a wholesome reading habit can become personally acquainted with the master minds of all the ages. Let us lead our pupils into this rich cultural heritage coming to us from a prolific past. Let us help them to make their leisure hours stimulating and profitable.

We are working in the public schools of York, (Pa.), to achieve these aims by systematic library instruction in grades four to ten inclusive. The work is organized under four general heads. 1. Conduct in the library is stressed with special emphasis on the importance of showing thoughtfulness to others by being quiet and orderly when in the library. 2. The care of books is taught with lessons on the opening of new books and the importance of using them in such a way that they be preserved in a clean and usable condition. 3. How a book is made, the significance of the table of contents, and the purpose of the index are also explained. Specific training in the use of the dictionary and the encyclopedia are taught as early as practicable. 4. Beginning with grade seven the use of a card catalogue is taught. Pupils should know how to find, without asking the librarian, what books by a given author are in the school library. He should also be taught to find what material is in the library on any subject. In the eighth grade the Dewey Decimal Classification System is taught, and the pupil is given practice in the use of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*.

In the high school building a trained librarian and an assistant are in charge of a library of 16,000 volumes, selected primarily with the needs of high school pupils in view. An average of 1200 new books are added yearly to replace worn copies and to add the new titles most urgently needed in the various departments of the school . . .

Teaching children to read with ease and intelligence, and developing in them a love for good books are of prime importance

in the elementary school. To children who read with ease and enjoy good books, the door of the high school and the college will readily open. To the pupil who reads laboriously and to whom juvenile literature has but little appeal, the prospect of securing a high school education is indeed remote.

He may pass the grades thru the generosity of kindly disposed teachers, but he is doomed to bitter struggle and probable failure in the high school if he is a poor reader. The teaching of reading, therefore, is the keystone of the elementary arch.

Each classroom from grade four to eight inclusive in our city is served by collections of books chosen by the librarian and grade supervisor to meet the needs of that grade. These collections circulate, according to schedule, by means of the school truck.

Each classroom library consists of twenty or more carefully selected books, covering a variety of informational and literary interests, and graded with the idea of developing reading power and creating a fine appreciation of the better books.

When the classroom libraries are sent from the high school library to travel through the various classrooms of the same grade, they are equipped with a list of the books therein, an itinerary of transfer dates from school room to school room, and a simple charging outfit. One result of the circulating classroom libraries is to bring the pupil into direct contact with the main library.

At the present time there are forty-two circulating libraries in the elementary schools of York with approximately eight hundred books in constant use. The monthly average is nearly six readers to each book. The work has been fully established for only two years but its popularity has been clearly shown. We add at least five hundred new books each year to replace worn-out copies and to add the new titles most suited to the needs of these grades.

The library service just described costs the school system \$4000 per year. The salaries of the school librarian and her assistant amount to \$2500. This leaves but \$1500 to be spent annually for new books and other equipment, which sum is appropriated each year in the budget for this purpose. There are 8500 pupils in all grades of the York city schools. This means that we are spending less than an average of fifty cents per pupil annually for school library purposes. In addition to this a liberal amount of supplementary reading material is furnished . . .

No one would contend that a single dollar of public money should be spent unwisely. But the reading habit is so essential to

all school success and to continuous mental growth throughout life, that wise school administrators will plan library instruction to point the way, and provide liberally in the annual budget to properly finance this important work*).

Deposit stations.

Fifteen libraries which operate stations were asked for information about their methods of selecting service points. The replies are tabulated below. Perhaps the most puzzling outcome was the wide variation as to total number of stations, and number of each type, in cities of somewhat similar size and character.

In determining the advisability of establishing deposit stations, the chief factor seems to be the locality. Practically all of the public libraries reporting stated that they consider this point very carefully. As they desire to serve the whole city, the distance from the main library and any branch is thought of and the number of people who can be served by the station. This influence of location and nearness of other service points is illustrated by Bridgeport, Connecticut, which reports: "We formerly had more stations in both factories and schools than at present."

... The factor of next importance is the securing of an attendant or custodian without expense to the library. The Hackley Public Library of Muskegon, Michigan, is the only one which uses no volunteer help and has all stations, with the exception of the four fire stations of which no circulation statistics are kept, under the charge of assistants from the main library.

The safety of the books and the interest of the users are other determining points. More than half of the libraries hold no definite policy in regard to discontinuing stations if the average circulation of books is small. Many of them have no higher average than ten per year per book, but feel even were it smaller, they would maintain the library deposit station if the people were appreciative and trustworthy.

All the libraries acknowledge that better and more satisfactory results would be obtained if it were possible to have library assistants in charge of the stations.

*) **Stoops, R. O.** A school library on a modest budget. *Library journal*, 50: 222-23, 1925.

Mr. **Stoops** is superintendent of schools, York, Pa.

Obviously some of the libraries feel the shortcoming of volunteer or untrained custodians, perhaps as much on account of difficulties in obtaining accurate records and the return of all books loaned, as because of any lack of knowledge about books and ability to encourage their use; the zealous readers will use station books under almost any conditions.

The final question which comes up in the establishment or discontinuance of a station may be roughly defined as follows: With the funds at hand for books and service, can we get the greatest use of books at the least cost by establishing a new station at this particular point, or is there some other point where at no greater expense we shall have more books borrowed? On this point of cost the questionnaire omitted any inquiry. At distributing stations of a certain type, such as those in drug stores, the Chicago Public Library pays the storekeeper a uniform rate of two cents per book loaned. Youngstown, which supplies all ten stations and three sub-branches with books from its general stock, figures the salary costs for recording books lent to two stations and three sub-branches, and for operating the points where library assistants are employed, at \$ 2561 per year with a circulation of 89,029*).

Package libraries.

Recognizing the value and importance of university extension service, and believing that a university, and especially a state university which belongs fundamentally to the people, is not fully performing all of its functions without extension work, the University of Kansas began, in 1891, to extend to the people of the state, some of the University's advantages in the form of free lectures by members of the University faculty. In 1910, however, a University Extension Division was formally organized which undertook, thru its various departments, to offer more fully and quite generally to those who could not come to the University some of the advantages and privileges of the institution which could be enjoyed without attendance at the same.

At the time of this definite organization, there was formed, as one of the departments in the Extension Division, a Bureau of

*) Jones, Gladys T. Factors in establishing Deposit Stations. Library journal, 50 1043-44.

Miss Jones is librarian of Cedar Crest College Library, Allentown, Pa.

General Information, the purpose of which was to act in very much the capacity suggested by its name; as a university center to which the people of Kansas might turn for information or for guidance in securing information.

One of the functions of this bureau and the one which, up to the present time, has been developed more than any other is the package library or library extension service. The development of this service is due to the continually increasing demand for work of this kind. This it seems is true not of any one locality, but is a very general condition all over the country, which fact is constantly proving that Library Extension Service is filling a very real and vital need that in the past received but little or no attention.

In offering this service to the people of our state, our aim is to supplement whenever possible the work done by the public and school libraries in the various communities. There are, however, many communities in Kansas with very inadequate library facilities or no library at all, and it is such localities particularly that we wish to reach in offering the substitution of the package library for the library assistance which they lack.

In this work we do not make a specialty of any one type of package library service such as that for Women's Clubs, but offer very general assistance to clubs, schools, and other organizations and individuals. It so happens, however, that Women's Clubs and schools represent by far the greater part of those we serve. This, of course, is only natural, as they represent very largely those whose interests would lead them to seek such help.

Altho we have in our files material on approximately thirteen hundred subjects, we find that a very large part of the requests received, require special clipping and assembling. This is, of course, a very necessary as well as natural part of the work in order that the material on file may be kept up-to-date and representative of the best we are able to secure at the time.

The material for our work comes to us from many sources. The material which we consider of greatest importance, however, includes, first, current as well as accumulated files of one hundred different periodicals and secondly, pamphlets, bulletins, and other fugitive printed matter. In our magazine subscriptions are covered, as nearly as possible, the various fields of interest which are represented in general package library work. The pamphlet material is also of many different kinds including a greater part of those government publications of interest to the general public.

To supplement our files of clipping and pamphlets, we have a small library, very inadequate as a general reference library, but containing about five hundred books of a very general nature such as the Wilson Handbook Series, The Modern American Writer Series, and various other separate volumes covering material greatly in demand and for which magazine clippings are sometimes inadequate. For general library service, however, we turn to the University Library and thru cooperation with the Extension Division, and with certain necessary restrictions, the General University Library offers the great majority of its one hundred and fifty thousand volumes to the general public on a loan period of two weeks. The aim of this service is more to supplement the package library work when other material is inadequate than as a special library loan service.

Closely connected with the package library and library loan work is the further assistance we offer club women thru our files of club outlines. These are offered on a two weeks' loan, merely to assist in the planning of the year's programs and not as special club outlines courses.

To assist schools and other organizations in the selection of plays for various occasions, we have established in this Bureau a Plays and Readings Service. The plays are lent for a three days period for the purpose of making a selection and are not to be used in studying or presenting the play. Readings suitable for various occasions are lent for a period of one week.

No charge is made for any of the services with the exception of a request that the postage used in sending out the material be refunded and a ten cents fine for any piece of material lost or destroyed. During the year, ending July 1st, 1922, a total number of 6,689 package libraries were lent, 1,250 library books, 3,115 plays, 2,162 readings and 400 outlines representing service to 571 towns in the state*).

Library revenue.

To say simply that the revenue should be amply large to give adequate service to the community does not answer specific questions

*) **Wagstaff, Helen E.** Conducting a package library on a limited appropriation A. L. A. Bulletin, 17: 270.

Miss **Wagstaff** is secretary of the Library Extension Service, University of Kansas.

arising from the expenditure nor does it explain the proper distribution of the expense. The amount needed varies more or less with the population served, composition considered as well as the number. For each library, however, there is a minimum below which no satisfactory service is possible.

The South Dakota *Bulletin* (June, 1921) states that it is impossible to run any kind of a library on less than \$ 1500; that up to a population of 2500, \$ 1.00 per capita is necessary, and this for part time service only. From our own investigations we conclude that, initial expense granted and, therefore, not considered, satisfactory library service in towns of 5,000 to 25,000 can be maintained on a per capita basis of from 65 to 75 cents. We say this in spite of the fact that the A.L.A. recommends \$ 1.00 per capita. Doubtless this is an ideal which we hope will soon be reached, but to demand more than can be efficiently used by any library organization at any given time, seems to us a waste of public funds. We have not studied sufficient circulation data to more than hazard the preliminary statement that in cities of the size already named, an amount ranging from fifteen to twenty cents per book circulated seems sufficient under present conditions. Either plan, in most cases studied, would raise approximately the same budgets.

From studies made in South Dakota and which we have checked over, and verified for typical Kansas Libraries, we may conclude, in general, that the budget when raised will be distributed along the following lines:

Salaries	44% to 54%
Books	12% to 16%
Periodicals	3%
Binding	3% to 4%
Fuel and Light	6% to 8%
Janitor Service	10% to 13%
Insurance	1% to 2%
Supplies and Printing	3% to 4%
Equipment and Upkeep	3% to 5%
Miscellaneous	3%

If the minimum percentages are used in each case, only 88% of the tentative budget will have been spent; and if the maximum percentages are followed, there will be a total of 112%, or a deficit of 12%.

What we have said so far is predicated on the assumption that the average customary practices in library expenditures are correct,

and that budgets based upon present usages and conditions are sufficient for library maintenance. Personally, however, we are not convinced of this. The proper use of library facilities in most communities is just beginning. As in the past, librarians and library adherents must do much missionary work — and it is difficult to increase on the size of budgets allowed by past experience.

The present day budget must do more than take care of the library wants now existent in any community. It must do more than pay the mere overhead expenses of existing buildings and replace wastage and loss by use. A library whose service and use does not expand more rapidly than the increase in population in that community is a library that lacks vision — whether the blame is the librarian's or the Board's or both. The library budget must be ample to help create new wants and to satisfy these new wants when so created.

The board of trustees should clearly see that in any budget there is a certain large percentage of fixed expense and that a relatively small additional sum added to the budget as usually contemplated will give relatively a much larger amount for book expenditures, and sufficient books of the right sort — for specific community needs and for general lines in the library. Say, 10% added to the ordinary budget may enable a library to double its book purchases and to see that these books are properly circulated. Many towns point with proper pride to library buildings but give too little concern to the fact that buildings alone do not make libraries.

But our second problem and perhaps the larger one is how to secure this budget from communities already overburdened with taxation, and for purposes thought to be ornamental rather than vital, cultural rather than democratic, and for the use of the few rather than of the many. Our answer is by publicity, and by more publicity, by telling the community what real modern library service is and what it can do.

While in Kansas the full power to make the tax levies for library purposes is in the hands of the local boards (with maximums set by the state legislature, which maximums seem to be ample, and if used by the boards, would in most cases double the present revenue), yet in the long run, no board will approach this maximum unless popular acclaim approves such a step, and this approval can come only with wide-spread individual realization of library functions. The more general the use of the library is, the

more general will be the moral support and the community willingness to give without question or complaint the budget desired by the library board. How to get the budget is primarily a question of popularizing the library and of putting it on the same financial plane with paving, with police and fire protection, with water, light and sanitation, and as a proper adjunct to school facilities.

We have used to advantage in our city the following:

1) Newspaper lists of book additions with comments on their relationships to ordinary life and present day problems. General reading notices of library activities are also furnished to the press. Our experience has been that this form of publicity brings the quickest results and is secured with less expenditure of time and energy.

2) Special services to clubs, societies and officials . . .

3) Letters and personal suggestions, with recommendations to professional groups and to business firms concerning books and periodical articles of interest and of value to their clerks; and even to their own problems as managers, buyers or producers.

4) Supplementing the needs of students in our public schools for home readings and reference work; and in not being too proud to tell our tax-paying public of this needed service we are rendering, and that definite amounts of money are required for this necessary service to realize fully on their school tax investment.

5) By book displays and conferences and lectures on book-buying, usually in connection with the annual children's book week.

6) By purchasing and getting into use large numbers of juvenile books and general non-fiction lines. In other words, by satisfying right now daily requests for such as, "What have you on oil geology", "Amateur radio installation", "Violin playing", "Employment psychology", "Tulip gardening", or "Hallow'een parties", etc. etc. Hutchinson's (Kansas) plan of circulating periodicals must add greatly to the library's popularity.

Last year with an increase of 10% in our budget, we increased our book circulation 30% over the previous year, besides extending greatly the use of reference books, bound magazines and periodical reading within the library itself. We have had no complaint yet whatsoever regarding our library expenditures nor do we anticipate any. In fact we believe public approval would sanction an increase whenever the Board thinks conditions justify the same.

With the above detailed explanation, then, we can say the budget should be as large as can be used to advantage without waste or extravagance; and you can get it whenever, in the community, you make the library a necessity justly so considered, in competition with the various other claimants for a share of the money raised by public taxation*).

Taxation for public libraries.

There may be excessive and unjustifiable taxation for the support of a public library — the amount which the city can afford for this purpose should be carefully considered in connection with its needs for a pure water supply and good sewage disposal, for means of communication, for the care of the sick, poor, and for public schools. Each case must be judged by itself; the only general rule I have to suggest is that in the department of education the claims of the public library for support are more important than those of municipal college or high school. The people who have no taxable property, and who therefore often erroneously suppose that they contribute nothing toward the payment of the taxes, are usually quite willing to have a higher tax rate imposed for the purpose of securing for themselves and their families free library facilities, — although in exceptional cases religious or sociological opinions may lead them to oppose it.

A considerable number of taxpayers, on the other hand, are more or less reluctant to have their assessments increased for this purpose, and their arguments should be considered and met. They are:

1. That they should not be taxed for things they do not want and never use.
2. That furnishing free books tends to pauperize the community and to discourage the purchase of books for home use.
3. That there is no evidence that free public libraries improve the community materially or morally.
4. That the greater part of the books used are works of fiction and that these are injurious to the readers.
5. That most of the arguments used in favor of free public libraries are merely sentimental and emotional.

*) **Heffelfinger, John B.** The library revenue, — how much and how to get it. Public libraries, 28: 118-20, 1923.

The first of these reasons would apply also to taxes for public schools, street paving, sewerage, and many other items of municipal expenditure and has no weight.

With regard to the second argument it is not a sufficient reply to say that every one pays through the taxes, for this would apply equally well to free lodging houses, free lunch rooms and soup kitchens, free fuel, etc., all of which it is generally believed tend to pauperize a city, except in great and special emergencies. The proper answer is that the free public library is an important and, indeed, necessary part of the system of free education which is required to secure intelligent citizens in our form of popular government, and that while in a few very exceptional cases free schools and free libraries may tend to improvidence or indolence or even to certain forms of crime, these rare cases are of no importance in comparison with the benefits which education confers upon the immense majority of the community and with the fact that without free schools and libraries a large part of the people will not be sufficiently educated to be useful citizens.

With regard to the third count, the public library, again, may be considered together with the public school. While it is difficult to trace to either specific instances of material or moral improvement, it is certain that the general diffusion of intelligence which both certainly effect does result beneficially in these directions. Communities with flourishing free schools and libraries are usually more prosperous and better than those without such facilities, and while there is doubtless room here for a confusion of cause and effect, it is probable that there is both action and reaction. Prosperity calls for increased facilities for education and these in turn tend to make the community more prosperous. That the majority of books withdrawn from public libraries are works of fiction cannot be denied. Many librarians are wont to deplore the fact, and most libraries endeavor in one way or another to decrease the percentage of fiction in their circulation.

The proportion of recreative reading in a public library is necessarily large. In like manner, the greater proportion of those who visit a zoological or botanical garden do so for amusement. Yet the information that they secure in so doing is none the less valuable and both are certainly educational institutions. So if in the public library a large number of its users get their history, their travel and their biography through the medium of recreative reading we should not complain. Were it otherwise these readers would

probably lack altogether the information that they now certainly acquire.

Taking up the final count in the indictment, it is doubtless true that sentimental and emotional considerations have had much to do with library development. They have furnished the initial motive power, as they have for free schools, for the origin and progress of democratic government, and for most of the advances of civilization. They often precede deliberate, conscious reasoning and judgment, yet they are often themselves the result of an unconscious reasoning process producing action of the will in advance of deliberate judgment. Sometimes they are pure reflexes, as when the eye is threatened by a blow. The free public library can neither be established nor maintained usefully without their aid, but their methods — or want of method — must be carefully guided to produce good results.

The sentiment that we ought to establish institutions for the diffusion of knowledge is the expression of a real economic need and should be directed and encouraged and not suppressed. Logic is a useful steering apparatus, but a very poor motive power*).

Library reports.

The library's annual report has two chief functions. First, it is a document of record. It accounts to the public for funds expended and tells of the work accomplished. As a document of record, it has an historical value and it should be sufficiently detailed to give a comprehensive view of the library's development during the year. Second, the annual report is, or should be, a medium of publicity to attract new readers and to gain the interest and support of the general public.

I picked out for examination the annual reports of twenty-six different libraries. They varied in size from eight to 104 pages, the average number of pages being thirty-two. It is probably unnecessary to tell much about their content. Someone has said that library reports differ from one another about as much as men's derby hats. I did find a startling similarity among them but the principal thing which impressed me (perhaps I should say, depressed

*) **Billings, John S.** The public library; its uses to the municipality. Library journal, 28: 293-94, 1903.

Dr. **Billings** was formerly librarian of New York City Public Library.

me) was their awful and deadly dullness. Most of them were excellent examples of that lifeless kind of writing that has become so traditionally associated with official documents. They were simply clogged with details. They would yield history enough to anyone who could stay awake long enough to read them but as publicity they would rank as first class opiates.

Consider these few scintillating shafts of publicity, and these are fairly typical of what I found. "On May 24, 982 volumes were returned to the catalogue room as overstock. Of these 982 volumes, 14 were redistributed to the branches, 951 were transferred to the central library and 17 were retained for filling future orders." "Miss Alice Harper who had worked as a page in the mending-room thru the summer resigned on September 1." "The reference room received a new map case and there is a new paper baler and scales in the basement." "The linoleum on the floor of the reading room was waxed and polished early in the year." I found statistics by the ream, yard, ton, or any other measurement you might care to use: statistics of almost everything, including the number of Library of Congress cards ordered, the number of cards added to the shelf-list and the number of overdue notices sent out.

Now it may be well to count all these items, so important from a historical standpoint, and perhaps they should all be made a matter of record. But think of the utter futility of trying to interest Mr. and Mrs. Average Citizen in the work of the library by printing page after page of this sort of detail! So there arises the question of whether it is possible for one printed document to serve adequately both the historical and publicity functions of the annual report. It is my contention that such a combination of functions is an impossible one and that each function calls for its own treatment in a separate report.

First, there will be the detail report — the document of record. It will give a very full account of the work of the year. It will contain the departmental notes, all the changes in the staff, the full statistics of circulation, registration and accessions, the complete financial report and all the other facts that may be important in years to come. This report need not be printed at all. It is of interest to a very small number of people. The librarians, of course, are interested. The library board should be. The heads of the city government have a right to the complete information altho we may, at times, doubt whether they are losing any sleep over us and our library. But the list is a very small one and a sufficient number

of copies can be typewritten or multigraphed. One copy would be marked "Official" and would become part of the library's permanent records.

To accomplish the publicity function of the annual report there will be a small, well written and attractively printed pamphlet, preferably illustrated. It will contain a concise narrative of the high points of the year's work and will feature those things most likely to attract the general public. It will be made a real piece of publicity. It may be only one-twentieth as long as the other report but it should receive twenty times as much care in its preparation. Go over the events of the year and decide which ones a newspaper reporter would pick out to feature if he were writing a Sunday special on the work of the library. In fact, the report may well take the form of a feature article on the library's services. Write with the idea of including some point of interest for everyone in the city. Weigh topics strictly according to their news value and slip in any necessary propaganda for more funds incidentally. Unusual services and work with special classes will usually demand attention. Specific questions may sometimes be quoted to indicate the character of the work done. For example, when we wanted to show that our Fine Arts division is not merely a place for the scholar and connoisseur, we quoted the following practical question: "Please find for us a number of symbolic American designs that can be used for coin shaped chocolates for the European market."

Of course, one must remember that it is essentially a report that is being prepared and that there are some things which must be included. General statements of circulation and registration, the number of books added during the year, the number in the library and an abstract of the financial statement are all things which must be included. Even these may sometimes be stated in such a way that they will appear to be the most compelling news. Or we can put them into tabulated or graphic form and by working out comparative charts we can make them the most interesting part of the report.

One of the first criticisms that will be brought against this idea of preparing two reports is that it will take too much time. You will say that you scarcely have enough time to prepare one report as at present. Under the present scheme, a great deal of time goes into the one long printed report. It is carefully written, prepared for the printer and proofs are read. After it is all done, what are the net results? We have spent practically all the money

the library can afford for printing. There is little or none left for bulletins, posters, booklists, or other forms of publicity. We have printed a long, minute and technical report which will interest only those people who are already intimately acquainted with the library and its workings. Its publicity value is almost negligible. Under the scheme advocated in this paper the longer report will not be printed at all and care need only be taken to make it complete and clear. The shorter report will take time — a great deal of it — but whatever time it takes can be charged directly against publicity. Surely the librarian should spend at least a small part of his time on publicity.

Last year we had our first experience with the shorter report at Seattle. Our reports had been averaging 28 pages. The report for 1920, consisting of 40 pages, cost \$ 180 for an edition of 1000, or 18 cents each. With these 1000 copies we could supply only a small list of interested persons; 150 of them went to other libraries. Because of the necessity of saving money last year we turned to the shorter form of report. The text covers only five pages and part of that space is taken by illustrations. There are three pages devoted to statistics and the library directory. We printed 4000 copies of this report, at a cost of \$ 99, or about two and one-half cents per copy. We sent them to the entire membership of the Chamber of Commerce, Municipal league, Rotary, Lions and Kiwanis clubs, the school principals and to many others. I cannot prove that all these persons read the report. I do claim, and I think that most of you will agree with me in this, that the busy people to whom they were sent are more likely to read an eight-page report written in newspaper style than a forty-page one full of details and statistics. Our daily newspapers may not always meet with our entire approval but they are certainly the most excellent guides to the public interest. They are run by men whose whole training is in judging the public taste. Send a long minute library report to the newspapers and see how surely they will pick out a few high points from which to write a short popular summary.

We put 500 copies of this short report into covers and by using the inside and back covers we gained three pages. On those pages we printed the standing committees of the library board, the library statistics in the form prescribed by the American Library Association and a summary of the circulation by classes and distributing agencies. Because of its fuller statistics and its more

permanent and official appearance, this edition was sent to other libraries and to the officers of the city government.

In summary, 4000 copies of the short 1921 report cost about one-half as much as 1000 copies of the longer report of 1920. It is my own personal opinion, and I am not speaking as a representative of the Seattle public library, that even tho the cost of the two reports were the same, the shorter one would be by far the better investment*).

Library reports.

Every citizen endorses wise caution in municipal expenditures as a civic duty. It is to be commended rather than criticised or condemned. However, there is a happy mean where neither niggardliness nor extravagance is manifest. The municipality need present neither the cringing attitude of miserable poverty, nor the extravagance of inordinate income.

These generalizations have specific reference to the official reports of cities; to the manner in which they are compiled, written and printed; to the frank neglect and indifference of officials in following out the directions of the laws governing the writing of the reports; to an obvious belief, or contumacy on the part of certain officials of the city that "economy" is higher than law.

The inadequacy of official reports does not apply alone to those of the municipalities. Complaint may, with equal justice and more reason be raised against state and governmental reports . . .

The reports of public libraries, with few exceptions, lack distinction. With all of the defects that they are alleged to contain, the reports of the departments of many municipalities are far superior from every point of view. In the compilation of library reports there often appears to be an apathy that can not escape the critical reader — a perfunctioness in their making — a cheapness in their dress, that many are below mediocrity. A large number of the reports omit the local features, the "human element", the "anything" of "general interest", so that by changing a few names, the addition or the elision of two, or three, or more figures on the statistical tables, one report might answer for all the libraries of the country. This is said with certain mental reservations. Statistics,

*) **Munn, Ralph.** Library reports. Public Libraries, 28 : 299-30, 1923.
Mr. **Munn** is librarian of Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh.

a little space for text, an illustration or two and the cover — these go to make up the report of the "literary department" of the city! There is a suppressed wail from some librarians, that "there is nothing to write about". The fact is, so much is omitted that the laws outline what library reports shall contain, that it would appear to be rather a matter of elimination than inclusion.

Library reports may be made enduring literature, or they may be compilations of statistical matter as valueless in a few months as a railway time table five years old.

Possibly we are too near the period of issue of library reports to gauge their value; or their appraisalment may be influenced by prejudices we would be slow to acknowledge.

We may only imagine the intense, widespread excitement that would follow the discovery, by Egyptian archaeologists, of a report of Phalereus, librarian of the library of the Temple of Serapis, with its one hundred thousand volumes! Would any statement of mere statistics be sufficient to appease our eager wonder and curiosity? Would details, however trifling and minute, be too prolix for our straining eyes?

If thru some alchemy, now unknown, the sublimated qualities of library reports should permeate the atmosphere, a sensitive instrument might be invented to catch and register these qualities, something after the manner in which the thermometer indicates the changes in temperature. We could at once know, without prejudice, the grades of the reports, by observing the movements of the imprisoned mercury. The high grades, the low and the medium would be recorded on the disk, or in the glass tube, as impersonally as the distribution of the falling rain. The inclusions, the omissions would go to make up the "qualities". Departure from conventional report-writing might be shown by an eccentric movement of the mercury.

It is regrettable to consider that the wholly practical use of this instrument might be impaired by the legislative enactments to be found in many states! For reports may not always take on the qualities of those who make them. The report of a public library is not the result of the capriciousness of the librarian, if he conscientiously follows the law, nor of the eccentricities of the library board of directors*).

*) **Cannon, Lucius H.** Public Library reports and the law. Library journal, 48 : 747-51, 1923.

Mr. **Cannon** is librarian of the Municipal Reference Branch of the St. Louis Public Library.

The loan desk.

The loan desk is really the hub of the library. To many people it is all of the library. If they find there the service and the books that they want, the library is a good one, and all that goes on behind the scenes to secure the smooth procedure is as nothing to them. If we are judged largely by the work done at this desk it is important to make it just about the best work done in the library, which means that the assistant in charge cannot be one who lacks the necessary technical training for a cataloguer, or the education and background supposed to be needed by reference assistants, or the charm and patience required for children's librarians. Ability to stamp books and cards, to find the outsides of books, to be a sort of super-page, is not the only qualification required by even the makeshift loan assistant.

Next to her love of books, and perhaps above it, must the loan assistant have a sympathetic appreciation and understanding of men and women — an impersonal constructive curiosity and a real enthusiasm for all sorts of people. Loan work is hard work. Unless it is hard work it is very apt to be poor work, but it is satisfying work, bringing great stimulus, quick returns and often compensation out of all proportion for the service given. The hours are irregular and hard, but nothing in the whole field of the profession gives a greater sense of work well done than the matching up of books and people. There is real pleasure in that accomplishment on both sides of the loan desk, and it is the sort of pleasure that is sometimes found in unexpected places. The university professor is no more grateful than the little old lady who takes her romance between covers, and who patting you on the arm says, "You certainly can find good love stories — I want another just like Patricia Brent", and goes off twinkling and grateful.

Of the many things asked of the assistant in the loan department today not all are made from the other side of the desk. The library demands all that she can give of service, of loyalty, of enthusiasm and co-operation. And in exchange for all of herself what may she ask and expect of the library?

In all sorts of work the individual now has a more or less newly recognized right to have and to express opinions concerning those whose duty it is to guide and direct her. There are too many opportunities for selection and choice for one not to know in advance what one may expect of any position. The librarian, who

is the leader, has it in his hands to give to the assistant or to withhold those opportunities which will open the way to her highest usefulness.

He is, of course, the directing force behind everything on our side of the loan desk. He must be much more than the mere student, the curator of books, tho he must still be that in addition to other things. He must have clearness of vision, definiteness of purpose, and constructive imagination. He must be the teacher of a vigorous, free, thoughtful next professional generation to carry on existing fine ideals, and he must help in the building of new ideals to meet new conditions. Such a leader will foster in his staff such a spirit of unity and co-operation as is the first need of any successful organization; he will draw out that hidden and sometimes unsuspected best which is within each one of us. The assistant has the right in view of what she gives to ask that her chief shall be one who in return will stimulate a creative spirit in her, who thru his justice, his appreciation, his inspiration will incite individual workers to follow their natural inclinations, for in that way lies the joy of achievement, the sense of development and growth.

The library living up to its ideals nowadays is probably the only place in the world where distinctions cannot be made between classes and masses because on an intellectual basis it is sometimes impossible to say what is class and what is mass. For the public we serve is alive and vivid. In the library it is usually very free from self-consciousness. We see the disguised parts of people's minds rather naked sometimes. They come to us for the things they want to read, not always for the things they mean to talk about but for the books that will satisfy their own cravings, their lacks. They come to us — grown-up intermediates, who have never passed their 16-year mental development; men and women whose days are filled with drudgery, starved and cheated of experience in their own lives; people who have no training in relaxation, who do not know how to use that part of their brain which is not concerned in their work; people who have missed romance, who have not been able to reach out to the real adventure in life; those who are afraid of change, and those whose deadly fear is the monotony of life — and we give them what we can. They do not all live in hall rooms by any means, nor are they all shabby, and it adds to the interest of the game to find how little these human traits are confined by artificial social barriers. Then there is that other type — educated, capable and sometimes much more difficult to serve — people who want the

literature of their professions and who delightfully let us help a bit with the literature of their avocations. We profit by charming bits of book talk, keen observations on men and event, scraps of information which can always be used. This public wants two distinct things at our hands, if we are clever enough to show them that we can be used for work as well as play. It includes the business man who comes for a detective story, to put him asleep or to keep him awake, and who if he falls into the hands of a wide-awake assistant, goes off with a book on his business and his hobby or something as well. A man stopped at the desk one night recently with his arms full of books. "I came here for a copy of 'Treasure Island' for my boy", he said, "Will you tell me what that girl did to me to make me think I wanted all these books". He was asked to leave what he did not care for, but he could not be separated from any of them. That assistant, I happen to know, was not working for figures to show in the next day's report. She was making an experiment and succeeding. She was finding readers for her books as well as books for her readers, and she was making friends for herself and her library with each successful venture.

They come in the course of the years, all sorts of people, and of every nationality, but it is the rare one who fails to respond to what seems to be a personal interest. And the loan assistant who makes it a real interest finds untold return for the smile and the question or passing remark. She is fresher and keener at the end of the day than if she merely found and stamped books, and she is younger at the end of the year. She has tapped unsuspected resources in her own mind. Her sympathy and human understanding have grown beyond even her own imagination. The library has become her library, and the public her public, and when that happens she is well on the road toward the real compensation which is to be found in work, and which can never be measured by salary scales. She knows something of that satisfaction which comes of being needed and used, of being able to do all that it is in one to do. Surely there are not many greater services than to bring the gift of books to men and women, and because of this there are many of us who never care to be anywhere except on our side of the loan desk *).

*) **Flexner, Jenny M.** The loan desk from both sides. *Library journal* 49 : 409-12. Miss **Flexner** is head of the Circulation Department, Louisville Public Library.

The librarian; requirements and duties.

In the first place we must *be* in order to become first-class librarians. I do not mean to be in the sense of existing but in the ethical sense. The first postulate of right being anywhere is character. Character determines conduct; determines choice, even of books. Character also determines culture in the truest and best sense. One cannot grow a real genuine culture upon an ugly character. One may pass through all the schools and universities of the world and still be uncultured. But undoubtedly the best road to culture lies in that direction. Nevertheless, it seems to me that there is something wrong with our system of education, when a man can go through a long course of training and not meet the great masters at all, or if at all only in a purely scholastic way.

Next after culture I would say the librarian in order to be successful must have a love for this work. This is necessary in any calling. It marks the difference between the mechanical and the real librarian. If you cannot muster this love at the beginning of your career, you had better leave this work for something else.

The next requisite necessary for the librarian is *helpfulness*. Woe be to that librarian who has not that requisite. Just here let me say a word in regard to our attitude to the public. Should we aid in research or should we tell the reader to be content with what can be found in the catalogue?

Not long since a student came to our library to look up some point of interest suggested in the class-room. I spent an hour or more in helping him find what he needed and what would perhaps have taken him three hours to find. A new assistant suggested after the young man had gone, "You should not have spent so much time with that man. You should have spent a little time in showing him how". I think we were both right. The reader in general is not as well acquainted with the inter-relation of subjects as the librarian gets to be, so that we really have the key to the solution of many a difficulty.

The word *co-operation* is much used in these days. It has invaded the library world. The librarian must co-operate in every undertaking that involves library use in the town where located. The public school, debating club, women's club, doctor, lawyer, teacher, preacher, parent, child, all will come to the public library for ministration, inspiration, help.

There is another requisite for the success of the librarian. There must be genuine *business ability*. This involves a knowledge

of how and where to buy our books. At the beginning of my buying I wrote to several of the leading librarians as to the method of purchase. I found that for books published in this country there was no uniformity of practice. So I began to study the subject for myself. I will give you the results in a few don'ts:

1. Do not buy all of your books in one place.
2. Do not as a rule purchase from the publisher directly.
3. Do not fail to connect yourself with some good dealer in second-hand books. He has more time and understands the general field better than any publisher. He is also more apt to be without bias toward authors and books and will be a real help in securing the best on subjects with which you are least familiar.

The days are not long enough for the librarian; something must be left undone. What shall it be? That is a question largely determined by the personal character of the librarian. One library rule not found in any of the manuals I know, is worth embossing on the memory. "Do the duty that lies nearest you." If you do this you will avoid many a conflict. Again I would say that the simplest duties must be done first, the more complex after. Availability of material before scientific method ... Our public must take precedence of our work. A library successfully managed can raise the tone of a whole community. Our real success will not be measured by our scientific knowledge of our work, by the size and value of our library, nor by the statistics of our attendance and circulation, but by our ability to transmute character, and this implies what I said in the beginning — we must *be* in order to *do* *).

The desk assistant.

While the large majority of library school graduates do not "look down" upon the work at the desk, it is true that they would rather do anything else. The reason for this does not lie in the training at library schools. On the contrary everything is done to encourage and interest the student in his work, which is, after all, the most important in the success of a library. The curriculum at a library school includes a study of the delivery desk and its workings

*) Ayres, Samuel G. The librarian; requirements and duties. Library journal, 27: 309-11, 1902.

Mr. Ayres is associate librarian, Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Ill.

as well as of reference work — a knowledge of which is essential to the usefulness of a desk assistant. In addition, practical work at the desk throughout the year is a requirement. Students often enjoy this branch of the course so much that they devote extra time to practical desk work. The reason why library school graduates do not care to take positions at the delivery desk is that salaries are lower than those in the cataloguing and reference departments . . . Besides the salary question, there arise also the difficulties of evening work and longer hours of service which accompany the work at the delivery desk.

It is also true that a considerable amount of the work at the delivery desks of our large libraries is mechanical — a simple stamping of dates and writing call numbers. In the open shelf library the reader gets his book and in the closed shelf library the book is sent for by pages. In both cases the assistant does not leave her post. Under such circumstances the work becomes machine-like and the assistant has no opportunity to grow.

In the small library where the assistant must do everything — get the book, charge it to the reader, answer all his questions as far as possible — the work is less mechanical and far better results are obtained. A knowledge of books is acquired, interest in the people and their wants is developed and the library is made attractive and helpful.

In its details of charging books, loan desk work does not require the same amount of technical training that is essential in cataloguing. It is in the technical knowledge of books, of the aids and guides, that library school training counts. The chief qualifications of a desk assistant are; *first*, the right personality (which includes courtesy, tact, memory, alertness, enthusiasm), and *second*, a knowledge of books. Such a person is not often obtainable, and very rarely at the salary offered for her services. That the personality of the desk assistant counts for most in the eyes of the public is beyond question. Personal qualifications such as those mentioned cannot be taught in library schools. A knowledge of books is almost equally important. One complaint so often made by the reading public (and of late some criticism of libraries has been made in newspapers and periodicals) is that the assistant at the desk knows so little about books. The popular book of the hour she may know but her knowledge too often goes little farther. The bookish young woman is hard to find among candidates for library work. A young woman to make desk work successful both for herself and for the

public must be so imbued with a love for reading as to be on the search for knowledge in all her spare moments. She must read a little about everything, must be ready to answer intelligently the borrower's questions about books. To do this requires the sacrifice of considerable time, but the compensation comes in the satisfaction which knowledge and helpfulness to others always brings.

No other work in a library is so interesting and satisfactory as that of the assistant who is brought in contact with the public. If the right person is in such a position, it will be the place where she can become broad-minded, helpful, happy because of the good she can do *).

Library assistants; shortcomings and desirable qualifications.

The qualifications desired are good health, a good education, a pleasing manner, assiduity, quickness, accuracy, and "gumption". In my experience we are seldom troubled by the lack of certain of these qualifications. In most cases, before the assistant is appointed to the regular staff, it has been ascertained that she is strong, well informed, tactful, and conscientious. It is more difficult to make sure that the assistant has the ability to work with speed and at the same time accuracy. Both of these qualifications are likely to be developed more fully as acquaintance with the work grows, and thus it frequently happens that on one of these two points an error in judgment is found to have been made. Perhaps the assistant performs less work than seems proper, although no fault can be found with her conscientious effort. This is a particularly trying defect — one which does not justify oftentimes a dismissal of the attendant, and yet seems very difficult to remedy in any other way. A still more exasperating defect is inaccuracy. It necessitates constant supervision, and when incurable is an exceedingly serious disqualification. Gumption is a quality difficult to define, for which there seems to be no pseudonym. But it is an indispensable qualification for the assistant who is to take an advanced position on the staff. It means the ability to see what needs to be done and the capacity to do it. It means independence, united with proper

*) **Kroeger, Alice B.** The desk assistant. *Library journal*, 26: 804, 1901.
Miss **Kroeger** was formerly head of the Drexel Institute Library School.

subordination and good judgment. Taken all in all, it is probably the highest characteristic of a good assistant, and one which is most difficult to gauge without the test of actual work. Possibly this may be made plainer by an illustration. The assistant without gumption never has recommendations which are of value to make for the improvement of her work. Generally she makes none, and is content to follow the routine without ever taking her head out of the sand. If she does make recommendations they are impracticable. When the librarian outlines briefly some plan which she wishes carried out, the assistant lacking gumption either does not see how she can do it without giving up the work she has in hand; or if she does do it, carries out literally the suggestions made, and perhaps omits certain indispensable things which were not mentioned in the brief outline, but which she ought to have seen, and the lack of which renders the work when completed practically useless. The assistant with gumption grasps at once what is wanted, contrives to execute it without allowing her other work to fall behind seriously, and without continual questioning contrives to produce the exact result the librarian desired.

College graduates, curiously enough, seem to render far less satisfactory service than others during the first year or two. They display inability oftentimes to deal with details in a careful and accurate manner. Yet after they have benefited by the training of actual work, say in the course of a year and a half or two years, they seem to outstrip competitors and show a larger grasp of matters. It very frequently happens that their fund of information is no better than that of a well-educated high school girl; but they have a larger horizon and see things in a broader way*).

*) Library assistants' shortcomings and desirable qualifications. Library journal, 29 - 349-59, 1904.

Extracts from a symposium.

B. TYPES OF LIBRARIES.

Development of the state library.

Practically all of the state libraries of the older states had their foundation in the miscellaneous collection of books which had gradually accumulated in the offices of the several state officials from the beginning. These volumes consisted principally of collections of their own laws and legislative proceedings, books purchased to meet temporary necessities, or which had been presented by the sister states, foreign governments, or individuals. Until they had been gathered together and arranged and some one made responsible for their completeness and safety, they were of very little service to the public.

So far as we know, governmental libraries began with organized government. The kings of Assyria had their libraries of carved stone and baked clay; the Ptolemies gathered at Alexandria an immense library, and immense governmental libraries were accumulated at Constantinople and at Rome. The national libraries at Paris, London, and other European capitals have grown, have evolved to such proportions and are now so deep rooted in the fabric of government that they are numbered among the chief attractions of modern Europe, while in our own country the library of Congress — our national library, — is an object of admiration to the world.

It was not until Revolutionary times, however, that we find any systematic attempt being made to accumulate regular libraries, at the several capitels. The spirit of the 17th and 18th centuries as evidenced by the administration of the foreign governors who were sent to the several colonies did not seem to encourage governmental libraries. (To be sure, there had been accumulated in some of the states their own laws and their own legislative proceedings.)

There are two extremes to be guarded against in our library development, viz., undue contraction, which may result in channels too narrow to be practical, and, on the other hand, undue expansion, which must result in most libraries in more or less shallowness. There are, however, two lines which the people of the state have a right to expect to find in their state library, viz., whatever pertains to the

science of government for the aid of those who are to administer government and whatever is necessary to assist in the intelligent development of the resources, industries and people of a state and to fittingly illustrate the history, character and evolution of such developments.

The reference department should be especially rich and complete in encyclopedias, dictionaries, gazetteers, atlases, handbooks, and the reliable time savers of our day. So far as needed and possible there should be special libraries for the several departments of state and legislative committees.

The scope of the law department should be a broad one. It should be as complete as possible in its collections of the statute laws and official law reports, legal periodicals and Bar Association Proceedings of the United States and of the several states; perhaps also those of Canada and the rest of the British Empire, if not of the other leading nations of Europe, South America und the East, together with such books as mark their development. The world is fast growing smaller and our neighbors are fast getting nearer. The "might be" soon becomes "may be", and before we realize, it "is". An attorney, therefore, has the right to expect to find in his state library any books cited in the opinions of his own supreme court and the Supreme Court of the United States, if not everything cited by the highest courts in the several sister states.

The departments of archives and public records cannot be over-emphasized. As the writing of history will never end, so the collecting of material for historical purpose must never cease. With each generation there are produced histories of the past, written and interpreted in the light of its own civilization.

States are but individuals, and, like individuals, differ in age, occupation, wealth, and territory controlled. Like individuals, then, they should conduct their several households and fashion their several establishments, being governed largely by their environment, requirements and financial abilities.

While in general the state libraries should be to the several states what the Library of Congress is to the nation, the system of common schools, academies, colleges, universities, and public libraries in vogue in a state very materially affect the development of the state library. The development of the state library in a state whose several towns have good public schools, good public libraries, and in whose borders are one or more good college or university libraries open to its citizens, will naturally be very different from the

development of the state library of a state whose system of education is not so well developed. In the former case the state helps the several communities through the local school or local library, so that the state library is of necessity largely a library of reference, built up not necessarily in all departments of knowledge, but along those lines not adequately represented by the other large libraries, within its borders. Such an arrangement or division of labor not only accomplishes the ideal university plan where each department is independent and under the direct supervision of a trained expert, but each library is thus permitted to use all its funds to purchase books along its chosen lines*).

The evolution of the state library.

One of the chief functions of government is the education of its citizens. Every person has the right to an education at public expense. In fact, every state requires its children to go to school. Yet this idea so universally admitted now as axiomatic, was of recent origin and of slow growth. It is true that the beginnings of it are seen in the early ordinances of Massachusetts, in the Northwest Territory Ordinance, in the Farewell Address of Washington, and in the writings of John Adams. But these were merely the dawn prophesying the rise of the common school system. Practically the entire growth of the tax-supported school has been within the memory of men still living.

But the school alone is not sufficient. It does not furnish that education which is necessary for the proper functioning of a democratic form of government. The majority of children leave school around the age of fourteen. Only one out of five continues through the high school, and fewer still go on to college. Further education is necessary.

While the public library is a product of recent years, the state library is much older. In fact, nearly all civilized countries since ancient times have had some sort of a government library. In the United States, shortly after the adoption of the Constitution, there arose a movement among the states for the interchange of laws and

*) Godard, George S. Development of the state library. A. L. A. Bulletin, 17: 293-94, 1923.

Mr. Godard is librarian of Connecticut State Library.

legislative journals. Later, court reports and other state publications were included. The care and custody of these books required the formation of the state library. From the character of the books and also because of the fact that the idea of the tax-supported public library had then been hardly thought of, it was natural that the state library should have been simply a law library for the use of state officers. The use of the library also was largely seasonal and so the work of the librarian was generally taken on by some other state officer in addition to his other duties.

Coming down to 1876, the date which we are now celebrating, let us compare a few statistics of state libraries then with those of to-day.

In 1876, the state libraries in the country had altogether about 800,000 volumes; today, they have eight times as many. Then the average size of a state library was 18,000 volumes, now it is 140,000 volumes.

The amount of money spent by state libraries shows even greater increase. In 1876, many state libraries received no appropriation whatever, the average annual appropriation being about \$1,500, only two or three states exceeding \$5,000. To-day, the total *annual* appropriation is about \$1,500,000, or an average of about \$30,000, New York alone exceeding \$200,000.

In 1876, there were five state librarians who were women; now there are seventeen.

The matter of book circulation is of great interest. Founded purely for reference use, the state library for many years restricted the loan of books to state officers. Similar practice exists to-day in quite a few states, as for example Utah and Oklahoma, where the law makes it an offense punishable by a fine for the librarian to lend a book to any but certain designated persons. In some other states, for example Idaho, books are lent only upon order of court. Some states require a guaranty or money deposit, as Montana and Colorado. More allow general circulation, as Maine and Kansas. The more common practice is to restrict individual loans to state officers and certain classes of people, but to permit general use by all through inter-library loans.

When we come to consider the services rendered by the state library, we find the greatest diversity. Some states show no development except in the number of volumes, while others have added special collections in all branches of knowledge, have custody of the state archives, do historical research, maintain museums,

supervise local libraries, conduct library schools, etc. Such activities have been gradually taken on in varying degrees in the different states, mostly within the present generation. We do not have to go back very far to find the first manifestations of interest by state librarians in general library work. As late as 1899, Melville Dewey said that most state libraries "were little better than ciphers".

It was only in New York, Michigan, and possibly a few other states that the state library at first assumed the leadership of this movement, doubtless because the work was too foreign to the nature of the then existing service of the state library. In fact, the movement met with considerable opposition, one famous legislator saying that the state might as well furnish the people with boots as books.

Some would restrict it to a library for state officials, holding that it should not become a public library any more than the state treasury should do a general banking business. Others would extend its activities into all fields of library work and centralize under it *all* library interests of the state. Between these two extremes there is the greatest diversity of opinion and practice, hardly two state libraries being alike in organization or service. There are at least twelve state organizations performing library service, namely, (1) the state library, (2) the law library, (3) the document library, (4) the historical library, (5) the archives department, (6) the traveling library, (7) the university or school library, (8) the institutional library, (9) the museum, (10) the library commission, (11) the legislative reference bureau, (12) the library school.

These services are united in the state library in varying degrees in the different states. Local conditions will prevent any general uniformity for some time to come, if ever. Undoubtedly there is a strong tendency toward *partial* consolidation as seen in Maine, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Illinois, and Indiana, to mention only more recent examples. But some branches of library service are omitted from the consolidation, as for example, the law library, which is separate from the state library in eighteen states, and the legislative reference bureau, which is separate in nine states. In only thirteen states is the library extension work a function of the state library. In many states where consolidation has *not* taken place, existing agencies give as satisfactory service as is given anywhere and separate specialized control is favored by many.

The progress made by the Library of Congress in its development into a national library may be taken as forecasting, in a general way, the eventual scope of the state library. With the

increase in governmental regulation and the constantly enlarging scope of legislation, the state library necessarily enlarges its field. State officials demand more books. So that even to perform its original purpose of service to state officers, the state library needs a large miscellaneous collection of books of more or less popular interest. The books being in the library, it is inevitable and fitting that they should be used by the private citizen. A further development of this idea allows the book to circulate throughout the state and makes the state library a reservoir from which the local public library may draw in case of need.

In fulfilling its function as a special library for the state government, the state library must have, beside law books, all important books pertaining to the science of government. It must have also as much material as possible relating to the history, government, resources, and people not only of its own state but of other states. It must be realized also that the state library serves the future as well as the present. In rendering such service efficiently, it is rendering the best possible service to the people of the state. Practically all states recognize also a duty to render further library service, reaching out to all individuals in the state and bringing to them that "medicine for the soul" to be found only in books. Whether such service is by the state library, or by some other department of the state government is a matter determined by local conditions in each state *).

The county library and the state.

A county library extending its service to the county boundary line is a state library in miniature, which does extension work through traveling libraries and parcels post reference service, using the state boundary line; or, a public library extending its service to the county line instead of that of the municipality. Thus the county library would seem to be the last word in state or public library development, and nothing should so stimulate the library movement in a state as a good, workable county library law. Like a spider sitting in the center of his web, the county map shows the central library from which radiate branches and stations to every town or hamlet and to every school room of a county.

*) **Conant, H. J.** The evolution of the state library. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 20: 330-33, 1926.
Mr. Conant is librarian of Vermont State Library.

In a state having a municipal library law, as most states have, there would seem to be no question or difficulty in extending the same privilege to the whole county, giving the country people a privilege that the town people already enjoy, and it would seem to be their inalienable right to vote on it. Legislators have been known to say that this is the right of any county even without legislation. I wish we might have it tested. Where a municipal library already exists at the county seat or other municipality, if that be the law, and it should be turned into a county library, it merely means giving to the country people and rural districts the same library facilities the towns already have, and thus extending equal library privileges to all the people of the county.

With a county library law, county seat towns without libraries establish them more rapidly. Where the municipal population is too small to provide an adequate library, the population of the whole county usually justifies it. The county library law also should stimulate the establishment of a library in every town of the state. Those large enough may want their own libraries independent of the system, but it is better, under the right conditions, if they do not. The small towns and hamlets may become branches and deposit stations of the county library and thus have library service, when alone they would have none whatever. A good county library law should stimulate the library movement in a state as nothing else can do. With extension of territory and service, increased staff, facilities, and funds, higher standards of service and healthful rivalry among the counties should come; awakening library activity hitherto unknown. Because of such increased facilities, territory and service, every library already established should render greater service and take on renewed activity and life.

Many a county seat town has too small a population to warrant maintaining a library of sufficient value to meet the needs, so by increasing the territory, population and funds through the county plan, a library adequate to meet the needs of all the people may be supplied. After the Carnegie Corporation became imbued with the county library idea, a county seat applying for a building was often told that it was too small to receive a gift under the municipal plan, but if it would extend its request for a library for the whole county, it would be considered. Towns to which this answer came, in states having no county library law, soon saw the advantage of it, and the promoters of the library thus became strong advocates of a county library law, and rendered every assistance to bring it through

the legislature. In this way county seat towns too small to have libraries and buildings under the municipal plan are encouraged to establish them. Such towns have been known to take advantage of a county law at once, when the municipal law never had seemed practical.

While buildings should be a secondary matter to libraries, they make a strong appeal and help to promote healthful rivalry among communities. They also make an impression on neighboring towns. A building for a county library is a larger consideration than one for the municipality. The Carnegie Corporation, measuring by population, territory and tax valuation, would give four or five times as much when the county was to be served as would be given for the municipality. Similar consideration would result no matter how the money is provided to build the library. Nor has the main building in any way seemed to hinder the branches or independent municipal buildings over a county, any more than the main building in a large city hinders the branches throughout its system. So county libraries eventually bring thousands of dollars more money for library buildings into a state than ever can be had without a county library law.

Of the various provisions for public libraries the county seems to be the best and natural one for library extension to rural communities, while the county center is the logical place for the location of the building. The county seat in many states being the commercial, industrial, educational, religious and political center for the farmer, some member of his family is sure to come to town at least once a week, making it possible to obtain or exchange books at the library. Aside from the town the district schools and churches are his social as well as educational and religious centers. Smaller collections of books may be sent out from the main library to these and other places for distribution, to give opportunity for personal selection. On the other hand, no one would advocate the county plan if every one had to come to the library personally for service, but the modern means of calling for books by telephone and mail provide the lending of books to all residents of the county on the same conditions as to those of the town in which the library is located. The rural free delivery, telephone, parcels post and auto service, as well as express and freight, in connection with the county library in recent years, are not only a God-send to the most isolated person in the state having a county library law, but also may be considered as the greatest thing that ever came to the farmer. The

county library is the natural co-runner of the modern ways of communication and transportation. The horse power book wagon, no doubt suggested by the old time huckster wagon, exchanging grocery and dry goods commodities for butter and eggs, with the farm homes, has been superseded by the auto book service. Is it too much to expect that the aeroplane will soon be swooping down in front of the farm house and the small community with books from the modern, adequately equipped county library?

One of the greatest problems of rural life workers and writers in recent years has been the migrating of young people from farm to town. Rural community life has been too dull, monotonous and undesirable to hold its promising young people. Not only do county library facilities make a more desirable community in which to live, especially for young people — creating a greater community intelligence by developing an intelligent citizenship, — but like good schools they help increase the value of property. Nothing is so effective as touching the pocketbook, especially with hardheaded business men*).

Library administration, state and county.

My topic for discussion will be largely in the nature of a round table.

Naturally, coming from California, I will be very modest and give you what we have been doing out there, as it seems to us the most practical thing we have yet hit upon. I think that you are more or less familiar with the plan which we have adopted; it is one of unusual simplicity, and it has been worked out at least to our entire satisfaction.

The state of California has 58 counties. San Francisco is a city and county with co-terminous territory, and has had a county and city library covering that territory from the establishment of that system.

We have, therefore, remaining 57 counties to which service ought to be given.

*) **Downey, Mary E.** The county library and the state. A. L. A. Bulletin, 47: 288-89, 1923.

Now librarian of Denson University Library and Director of Chautauqua School for Librarians, Miss **Downey** was formerly library organizer for the state of Utah.

As some of you perhaps know we tried for several years the traveling library system, but in our state of magnificent distances, we found it rather hard to administer from one center.

Our coast line — and I am not boasting now, Mr. Chairman — is a thousand miles long, and we have some mountains there that I believe are the highest in the United States — the reporter need not take that, because I said when I came here this time I was not going to brag about California any more. I cannot help it since the judge who welcomed us spoke so highly of the great things here in Detroit — it began to make me feel almost like I was home again.

We found that the traveling library system, to get back to the subject, was not entirely adequate for our purposes. I have no doubt that if we had one now it would be infinitely better than we had before, and it probably works out well in certain states.

We emphasized for some time the establishment of public libraries, but we rather desisted in that for two or three reasons. In the first place, all of the larger towns which could adequately support a library had been organized, and we found that the efforts that we were expending in encouraging the establishment of libraries in smaller places were more or less wasted. Smaller towns were unable financially to support a library in an efficient manner, that is, there was not money enough to buy books, and they could not employ a librarian, two requisites in my opinion to the giving of library service.

In 1909 we got through a county library law, which for certain reasons was not put into operation until our second law of 1911 was adopted. That law has remained on our statute books, with practically no change whatever since that time; the only changes are in the increases of county librarians, whose salaries are fixed by the legislature in our state, rather than by the local county authorities.

With the exception of certain counties that have recently adopted county charters, with defined terms, the board of supervisors may not fix the salary, or change the salary of the county librarian.

We have at the present time 45 counties in operation, or, adding San Francisco, 46*).

The counties which have not yet come in are those more or less sparsely settled and in the mountainous districts of the state. They, doubtless, will come in in time, and probably could be forced

*) July 4, 1927.

in if we took that position, which we of course do not. We simply give the information, the way it is worked, and send representatives to the county on request, but make no effort to force establishment of the county library system.

Our county libraries do not cover the territory that is found in cities or library districts having their own library system unless the district desires to become a part of our system, in which case it may become a part by action of the city council, and will be taxed and receive the same services as the remainder of the territory of the county.

The headquarters in each county, which is at the county seat, has a collection of books for use of people of that county, with numerous branches throughout the county. In stores, post offices, in the homes of the citizens of the county, and in communities where the number of persons would justify, we have, of late years been building similar branch libraries.

The county librarian is appointed by the board of supervisors, and we do not have what is ordinarily spoken of as a board of library trustees. We find our system quite effective. It may not, of course, work in every state, but with us it works out admirably, works out so well that one of the supervisors of one of our best counties is in attendance at these meetings, which I think is "going some" for a member of the board of supervisors, if you know something about such boards.

The librarian, of course, is not left to be appointed by the supervisors without some direction and the person who desires to become county librarian must qualify by taking an examination before a board of library examiners. I think on that point, perhaps, more than any other we can base the effectiveness of our system.

That plan would not be quite complete, of course, without giving some consideration to the schools, and under our law the schools which for a great many years have had school libraries into which they have poured a very large sum of money without any appreciable results, may now become a part of our county system by simply paying a charge on the authorization of local school board — that is by voluntary action on their part.

We have about three thousand of those school districts now in the state which have come in in that way. If the schools were not satisfied with the services received, they could, by action of the board of trustees, get out very easily. I might say, however, you can

count on one hand the school districts that have not seen fit to continue the service after they have tried it once.

Of course this plan spread out over our entire state would give us a very fine system, and in time will undoubtedly cover the counties which have not yet come in. There is no distinction whatever between the public and county library in our state; they all receive exactly the same services from the state librarian, and are all exactly on the same basis. At least we have come out there to view the thing in a very sane way, as one problem, the giving of library service. There is no feeling whatever between our public and our county libraries.

In the years I have been coming to the A. L. A. I might note that there has been a vast change in the feeling of the American Library Association toward this newer system of library service. You now find a general session of the A. L. A. devoting some thought and some time to hearing a broad-casting by the president of that organization to assist the county library, and I think it shows a growing sanity among the librarians that are gathered together under the banner of the A. L. A.

The state library with us has a very close and very active part to play with the other libraries of the state. In the first place, the state librarian is chairman of the examining board before whom county librarians must qualify. The state librarian has the authority to call together, and does call together the county librarians in convention, somewhat similar to this; and, of course, the county pays the expenses of the various county librarians to such convention. We send to the counties from time to time a representative of the state library, or the state librarian, who is supposed under the law to go himself, but does not always find the time.

This library representative will go into counties, for example, in which the school people have not yet seen the value of coming into the county library system and visits are made, usually with the county librarian, to the members of the local school board, and the matter is explained to them. The teachers are heartily in sympathy with the work, and we always have their support.

In addition to such personal service, the state library with us acts as a clearing house for all sorts of professional questions, and for the consideration of many of the reference questions which are somewhat beyond the local resources.

The state library, which now has something over 30,000 volumes does not purchase fiction but devotes its fund to the

gathering together of books which are all of a more serious nature, books which are frequently expensive, which are very valuable to have in the state, and which it is not necessary to have in every library of the state; we send these out quite freely to the library, but not to the individual.

The service which we give to the people of the state is not to individuals except those who come to Sacramento, and they are always welcome there.

We, of course, actively support the development and the growth of the local libraries; the local library becomes the distributing point. You know how people are in this world. If they can get something afar off, they always prefer it; that is the reason they invest their money in Central America or in oil wells in Mexico or gold mines in Alaska instead of keeping it at home in the building and loan association. So, if we could give service to an individual throughout the state, you know about how it would be, he would think he was putting something over on his neighbor, but as it is he simply borrows from the local library. The plan is a very efficient one, and is working out splendidly.

I do not know that I have anything further to present. Mr. President, but I shall endeavor to answer any questions that anyone may have concerning our plan.

Mr. Bliss: Will you tell me what experience you have had with book wagons?

Mr. Ferguson: Our book wagons are not what are ordinarily known as book wagons; practically every county librarian in California has an automobile — you know, if it were not for California, Detroit would not be on the map, because we have more automobiles out there than any other state in the Union — every county librarian has an automobile, and makes frequent trips around the country; we find that personal contact is absolutely necessary. Upon each trip the county librarian always takes a load of books. We do not, perhaps, as some of the other states do, make a house to house distribution, but our branches or stations are so scattered, so thickly scattered over the state or county that the individual is not very far removed from the books.

Mr. Johnson Brigham: What salary do you pay your county librarians?

Mr. Ferguson: Our county librarians under our law get salaries of from \$125 to \$333 a month.

Mr. Johnson Brigham: From the state?

Mr. Ferguson: No, the salaries are paid by the counties.

Mr. Bliss: Do you have a library in the county seat, in addition to what you send from the state library?

Mr. Ferguson: Our sendings are always to the local library.

Mr. Bliss: Is the library there?

Mr. Ferguson: Yes.

Mr. Bliss: Who purchases the books?

Mr. Ferguson: The county librarian purchases those books.

Mr. Bliss: Out of his own funds, or state funds?

Mr. Ferguson: Out of the county funds. It is a co-operative plan; we do not furnish any money at all for books to be retained as county property; all of our purchases are for the state library itself, and the county shares its part of the burden.

Mr. Bliss: When you send books to these libraries, who pays the carriage, does the borrower pay?

Mr. Ferguson: No, the state library pays the carriage one way. That is another part of our contribution to the partnership.

Mrs. Magee: Mr. Ferguson, in the case of a town in an unorganized county is there any provision whatever so that they can get books, say, in a town where there is no organization?

Mr. Ferguson: In those cases, we send the book to the individual if there is no other way out of it. When we do that, however, we more or less penalize him, and arouse his interest in the establishment of some sort of library by requiring him to pay the transportation charge. It doesn't amount to very much, but it is an incentive in some cases.

Mr. Bliss: Are you sending many books to individuals?

Mr. Ferguson: The books sent to individuals are in the counties which are more sparsely settled, and, of course, there would not be the large number that we send out elsewhere.

Mr. Bliss: Well, as a matter of fact you do send them?

Mr. Ferguson: Yes, we send a good many books to individuals. Where there is a library we send in care of the public library, and if there is no library, in the sparsely settled counties, send direct to the individuals. It would be a very great hardship, indeed, if they were entirely cut off from some library resources.

Mr. Godard: You send books into counties or cities that have libraries?

Mr. Ferguson: Oh, yes; our service is supplemental, however.

Mr. Bliss: You send them direct to the applicant, or do you send them to the library?

Mr. Ferguson: To the library. If we receive a letter from an individual in a county or city that is organized, we return that letter, and also notify the county library, or city library, so the individual can get in touch with his distributing point.

Mr. Godard: What is your maximum tax in California?

Mr. Ferguson: Our maximum tax is one mill on the dollar.

Mr. Bliss: What does that amount to per capita under ordinary circumstances?

Mr. Ferguson: In 1920-1921 it was almost a million dollars.

Mr. Bliss: That is entirely county libraries?

Mr. Ferguson: That was for the 42 counties.

Mr. Bliss: How many people?

Mr. Ferguson: We have about three million inhabitants in California, but, of course, that does not include the books for the state library.

Mr. Bliss: That would include the 42 counties that are now organized?

Mr. Ferguson: That includes the 42 counties — 42 counties are organized.

A Voice: You pay a million dollars for two million people?

Mr. Ferguson: No, I would not say that we have that large a number of inhabitants, because Los Angeles, you know, is very much of a city and has some eight or nine hundred thousand persons now, and San Francisco has another half a million.

Mr. Johnson Brigham: I have asked two or three questions, but I want to ask how many of those 40 large counties reach the maximum, and what is the average?

Mr. Ferguson: Only one county in the state has reached the maximum, and that under peculiar provisions of our law has exceeded it.

Mr. Bliss: I understood, Mr. Ferguson, one of your counties out there, which is about half the size of the State of Pennsylvania, was taxing towns to the extent of \$10,000 for county library services.

Mr. Ferguson: Do you recall the county?

Mr. Bliss: I do not. It is one of the southern counties, that is somewhere down south of San Francisco, I have forgotten now, and I might be wrong; it is just simply an understanding; I intended to go into it a little more fully, but I wondered if you considered that a good spirit for county libraries?

Mr. Ferguson: That would depend on the population, entirely, Mr. Bliss; I would consider it justifiable for certain counties which

had a very large area, but not a very large population; the highest tax paid in the state, of course, is for the county of Los Angeles, and that covers the territory outside of the city of Los Angeles, and you know the city of Los Angeles is the largest city in the world in area, and there are a great many places having from ten to fifty thousand population down there that are not included in the county library service. I do not have the figures here for the year 1921—1922, but the figures for 1920—1921 are, for Los Angeles, \$174,800; that is for the county outside of the municipalities.

Mr. Bliss: That is for the county rural work.

Mr. Ferguson: For the rural work, yes; others of our counties run down to, oh, seven or eight thousand dollars, but these are counties in which the population is very low.

The President: I would like to ask, Mr. Ferguson, if it is true that most of the cities choose to go into the county system instead of remaining outside?

Mr. Ferguson: A large number of the smaller cities or towns are coming into the system; the larger cities, of course, do not come into the system, and as a matter of fact are not wanted; the only thing we want to do out there is to help the organizations large enough to bring in a sufficient fund to get the library service, and it would be better perhaps for the city which is large enough to run its own system, to remain out, so the larger cities — Los Angeles, Oakland, San Francisco, Bakersfield, cities like that — are not part of the system. In one county, one of our very prosperous counties, that of Fresno, the entire system is one system. Fresno is a city of about 75,000. Several years ago, the city authorities were fighting to discontinue their city library, and we have the county of Fresno now one county system, which is working out splendidly there, and I think is really an ideal for which we ought to work.

The President: How is the board of examiners for library certificates created?

Mr. Ferguson: That was created by the county library act of 1911; the board consists of the state librarian, as chairman, and the librarians of the public libraries of Los Angeles and of San Francisco.

The President: Are there annual examinations?

Mr. Ferguson: Of late years, we have been giving the examinations about every six months.

Mr. Bliss: The persons who pass the examination go into the public library service?

Mr. Ferguson: Some do, and the public libraries are very happy to get hold of persons who can demonstrate their ability to pass these examinations. The examinations I might say, Mr. President, are more or less rigid, and we from time to time have surprises in the persons who fail to pass them. Of course, it makes the board very sad when somebody comes up, ought to pass and does not.

Mr. Bliss: May I ask just one more question: Out in California, do I understand the county supervisors, or whatever they call them, elect the librarians?

Mr. Ferguson: Yes.

Mr. Bliss: Without a board of library trustees?

Mr. Ferguson: Yes.

Mr. Bliss: Do you find that that is working out really satisfactorily?

Mr. Ferguson: I would not change it, Mr. Bliss.

Mr. Bliss: You would not?

Mr. Ferguson: It is so effective I would not change it. The reason is that the general supervision of libraries is placed in the hands of men who have the management of the affairs of the county, and we find that they do things in a larger way than the ordinary library board is permitted to do, and they furthermore have the authority to give us an income which will be satisfactory.

Mr. Bliss: Then the librarian is practically supreme in the county library; she does not have to refer to the board of trustees?

Mr. Ferguson: Oh, yes, she does. The board of supervisors has control of the library, but we do not have intervention by a board ordinarily appointed for that particular purpose.

Mr. Bliss: You find that at a meeting called to consider county purposes they will take the time to consider the library questions?

Mr. Ferguson: Yes, they do. Some of the county libraries think that they take too much time*).

High school library work.

We who are in high school library work have the arrogance to think that such a position requires more than does that of an ordinary librarian. It certainly requires a person with some of the

*) Ferguson, M. J. Library administration, state and county. A. L. A. Bulletin, 16 : 394-99, 1922.

Mr. Ferguson is librarian of the Brooklyn Public Library.

teaching instincts. The work requires sympathy with the adolescent mind, — that rules out many who think in terms of a children's librarian. In the junior high school some of the qualifications of a children's librarian are very useful; but on the whole there is a decided difference between the attitude necessary for work with the older children and that suitable for work in the juvenile department.

There is the question of discipline. Tho we do not like to contemplate this side of the work, and tho the good librarian hides it as much as possible from herself as well as from the students, still we cannot afford to forget some of it enters into every phase of school work, no matter by what means we accomplish the result of good order. To some minds this problem of a concealed dictatorship is extremely distasteful. No one likes it, but there is a certain reward in producing order and in the exercise of governing without bullying. So, unless you can find a reward for this unpleasant side of things I would suggest that you leave high school work alone and do your library work in a place where you have more settled and self-controlled persons to work with.

If you find that to work continuously and systematically at a task gives you the greater amount of satisfaction then the high school library is not the place where you will be most happy. For there one needs to be all things to all men and women and children. Most high schools employ only one trained librarian, so that she is on call at all times. She must drop the most important thing at the most inconvenient time to do another odd job. The position is in the nature of a one man hand: one pair of hands and one brain to do and think of all from opening the mail to cataloging a scientific book. This point gives one pause; for it is most trying. Having to do everything at the same time is the rock on which many otherwise good librarians have foundered in school work. But there are compensations. One can make and keep one's own rules. One has far more liberty of action than in an ordinary library, for there one has to be an example and that exercise is wearing to many.

Do you like to direct young people? Much of the routine work must be done with the student help and that help, tho willing, is not always excellent. But one gets inured to mistakes after a while and one reckons with a percentage of them in the day's work. The children thoroughly enjoy the helping; they find a great pleasure in learning to use materials and tools, and in keeping records correctly. In every semester there is at least one child who learns to be very

useful, whose bent for order and accuracy is strengthened, and who is led to find the work in the world for which she is most fitted.

A knowledge of the literature of the adolescent is a useful qualification, and it is well to begin with this, rather than to hope to overtake it later on; for there will not be much time to work it up when once the position is yours.

But the most important qualification of all is a sympathy with the adolescent mind. That is the *sine qua non*. We must understand something of youth's psychology, either intuitively or by study. Do you like to work with immature minds? Or, would you rather help older people? Do you feel cramped with the continual battering of the same old things, without the broadening influence of the superior mind? Does the continual society of those who are intellectually your inferiors bore you? All these must be taken into consideration, when embarking on this career.

Since this library idea in the schools is comparatively new, you will find that the majority of teachers do not know books. Even those who have done more reading than the average person may not know books as tools, and they do not know how to help the youngsters to know them. There is nothing surprising in this. This is the point where the librarian and teacher diverge. Why should we expect the teacher to have that expert knowledge which it is our function to contribute? The younger teachers show a different attitude, for they have been brought up since high school libraries became general; they have been accustomed to using books as tools in school and college, and they instinctively turn to the library as their greatest help. Here we need to do no missionary work, but only to satisfy the demand made upon us.

Among the many things which will command your attention at the time of organization, is a thorough knowledge of the curriculum of the school to which you are attached. Study it all as if you intended to be a scholarship adviser. You will find that it will mean much to you in planning your collection of material.

The ordering of books will probably be left to a great extent in your hands. There will always be teachers who know what they want to use and how they want to use it and you will come to rely upon them a great deal; but some do not know the literature of their subjects; or at least they know little about what has been produced since they left college. Not only must you make a point of knowing this literature for them; but you must as tactfully as

possible lead them toward knowing it for themselves, for no matter how good the books you order, unless teachers know how to use them, they will stand on your shelves, unwanted, unhonored, and unused.

The manner in which this work differs from the work in a public library is chiefly, of course, in the pedagogical side. If you have had experience in schools or teaching you are most fortunate, for that will be of inestimable benefit to you, but at the same time you will probably come to realize that your greatest strength in the institution lies in the fact that you are attacking the problem of education from a different angle from that of the teacher. Your whole attitude toward the student is one of persuasion and not of compulsion. This attitude, of course, may be and very likely is, the attitude of some teachers, but still everyone knows that a certain amount of compulsion has its place in the classroom. That we can have a different atmosphere in our room is one of the great benefits of the library. Here we can have a room whose physical aspects are an entire change from the usual school room. We have dignified furniture of good design; the arrangement is orderly, but at the same time less formal, and the decorations are often artistic. We give to the students freedom of action and a liberty impossible in a recitation. And that atmosphere of well-being we must, by all means, strive to keep. The battle to win the child is more than half over when we can offer such advantages. We are given these outward advantages; what we need especially to do is to cultivate and hold the unseen advantages. This room is the one place in the school which it is a privilege of the pupil to use. It must never degenerate into anything else, never be used as a place of punishment or a place for students who are troublesome elsewhere. Unless you are quick to resist every encroachment on your room you will soon find that it has fallen from its high estate and it is classed in the children's mind with the detention room or the attendance office. This room must be made the beauty spot of the school; and be kept so. To pupils and teachers alike it will appeal. Many a teacher comes to the library as the one quiet spot and goes away refreshed in mind and body*).

*) **Laurence, Ethelwyn.** Fundamentals of High School Library Work. Library journal, 51: 17-21.

Mrs. Laurence is librarian of the Country Club Drive High School, Los Angeles, Calif.

The teacher and the school library.

The purpose of the school library is to supplement, strengthen and broaden the instruction in every subject, so far as this may be done through the aid of books. To accomplish this end:

1. The library must enable the student to use books as tools. He must understand card catalogues, and indexes and be able speedily to find topics in books of reference.

2. The library must help him to know good books, to love them, and to acquire the habit of reading them.

The recent growth of libraries has profoundly modified the modes of instruction in vogue a generation ago. At that date the text book method prevailed in the elementary and secondary schools. The pupil was assigned a set portion of the text to be mastered. In some schools the practice of rote learning existed, and the pupil was expected to reproduce the exact words of the text with the same fidelity as if he were reciting a chapter of the Bible. The teacher was little more than a drill master. In better schools the instructor would question the meaning of the paragraphs studied so as to relate them to the child's previous knowledge, and would frequently supplement the text with pertinent illustrations or additional facts drawn from his own store of knowledge. In the colleges it was chiefly by lectures, a method that originated before the art of printing, and was indeed a proper and necessary method when books were scarce and the teacher encompassed within himself all the learning in the world relating to his subject. With industrious and faithful professors the lectures were supplemented by oral quizzes and explanations, and an occasional formal written examination.

The text-book method still prevails in the elementary school but the library has come to supplement and enlarge. With older pupils in the high school and college the lecture or text-book now serves chiefly to open up the subject, to show its organization, and to disclose its vistas. Library readings more and more are expected to furnish the bulk of the detail that gives significance, reach, and application to the facts or principles of the text-book or introductory lecture.

A teacher to-day cannot properly organize his courses of instruction unless he knows the resources of the library and the mode of using these as an auxiliary in his work. Hence the study of the method for which the normal school is supposed peculiarly to stand

must include the use of the library as an educational instrument. No teacher is qualified for the modern school unless he knows where to look, for what to look, and how to look in getting information.

He needs acquaintance with the standard reference books — encyclopedias, dictionaries, gazetteers, atlases, almanacs, guidebooks, etc., the student should be familiar with the special merits of each, the various appendices, and supplements; he should know that it is sometimes better to consult an old edition of a book of reference. He needs also acquaintance with the special handbooks, like Harper's "Book of Facts" and Brewer's "Reader's Handbook".

He needs knowledge of the various indexes of periodical literature and of government publications.

He needs to know the general make-up of a book, and how to use prefaces, tables of contents, and running headlines to locate his special topics.

He needs to know how to study the references when found, how to take notes intelligently.

This body of knowledge cannot be acquired and retained by the pupil from listening to formal lectures of the librarian. It must come through the daily use of the reference library.

Nearly all young students waste time in the library through not knowing how to study the reference material when found. It is not proposed to set up the claim that there is only one right method of studying. We are told that there are several excellent methods of making good coffee, and we wonder how it happens that our country hotels find so many other ways of making execrably poor coffee. So there are many good ways of studying; the personal element enters in. Yet it is a fact that our students have found other and very poor ways — it makes no difference from what state, section or school they happen to come.

The book is scarcely open before they begin to write. Copying before they have read the article through, they write a great many unnecessary words, if indeed there is any necessity for writing down anything at all — what they are really doing is taking all this time to copy the information, and then studying it afterwards from a somewhat illegible manuscript instead of studying directly from the printed page.

A way of using still more time is to take this penciled copy and write it in ink in a permanent notebook. I found a girl following this method, her reference book to begin with being almost more

extensive than her textbook. She said she had wondered why it took her so long to get that lesson.

We find many students taking notes in this fashion in the preparation of a class paper. They copy whole paragraphs intending, they say, "to boil them down" in the solitude of their own rooms. We have tasted the decoction. Instead of mastering the article and noting down the bare points, later to be amplified and discussed in the student's own language, we find this other laborious procedure in which the pupil rarely escapes from the phraseology of the book. The idea of studying seems to be through the slow medium of pencil and paper instead of the more rapid but more intense way of thinking and comprehending.

Besides this knowledge of how to use a library and the habit of using it both as a student and as a teacher, the normal student needs a knowledge of titles, of the names of the leading poets, novelists, essayists, orators, historians, and scientific writers of the world; he needs to know something of their spirit, their style, their purpose, their contribution to civilization and the titles of their leading works. A generation ago we studied Shaw's "History of English literature"; we learned the names of hundreds of books that we never saw. It was a good deal like studying a book catalogue or undertaking to satisfy one's hunger by perusing the menu card. The schools have rebelled against this empty study. We are now studying literature itself instead of books about literature. Yet there is a place for that older knowledge. We learn names of countries and cities, their location, industries, products, institutions, objects of interest and other characteristics, even if we do not expect to visit these countries and cities. Similarly I may know of the "Origin of species" that it was written by Charles Darwin and published in 1859; that it was probably the most influential book of the 19th century because it led to the general acceptance of the doctrine of descent and organic evolution which has so profoundly modified our thinking in every field of knowledge; that it deals especially with natural selection as the chief factor of organic evolution, that its leading chapters deal with the variations of plants and animals under domestication, with variation under nature, with the struggle for existence due to over-production, with the survival of the fittest, with the laws of variation, with geological and geographical distribution, and with the difficulties of the theory. This sort of knowledge is possessed by hundreds who have never read the book through. It may be called the librarian's knowledge of the book, for some

people say that a librarian never reads a book — barring novels. But it is a form of knowledge of high value to one who may need some day to turn to this information or direct others to it. It is a sort of literary map that we all need acquaintance with if we are to find our way in the world of thought.

A special field for the teacher is the knowledge of juvenile books. Some he may know and love at first hand. If he is to read to his class the chapter that will make the children hungry for it all — and read it in the right fashion — he must himself have assimilated the book. But aside from the few that the normal student can thus study is a much larger list of trustworthy books that he can recommend to parents or himself select for his pupils. In my own personal experience as a bookbuyer I have found some difficulty in getting reliable lists. I have bought books for the school library that the children would not read. Since, in my older days, I have seen the methods used by authors and publishers to get their books upon reading circle lists, I do not wonder that some of the chaff gets into the cleanest measures of wheat. The market abounds in picture books poor in line and color, in fairy stories without the good old flavor, in books of fiction that teach children to despise their elders, in collections of verse that are merely cheap sentiment in rhyme, in nature books weakened by personification until they are neither good, true, nor beautiful. The normal schools should co-operate in a patient and thorough experimental investigation of children's books to be conducted without fear or favor.

If the considerations set forth in this paper be true it must follow that all teachers be thoroughly instructed in the use of the school library, and that all except those destined to work in our larger cities in co-operation with public libraries under trained librarians need a knowledge of library organization and administration*).

Junior high school libraries.

The organization of the junior school system in San Antonio made the library the pivot wheel of all teaching. When the schools

*) **Felmley, David.** How far should courses in normal schools and teacher's colleges seek to acquaint all teachers with the ways of organizing and using school libraries? *Library journal*, 53: 305-08, 1908.

were organized the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars was set aside to furnish libraries for the eight junior schools. These were made up of books on social studies, health education, mathematics, English — including fiction, — general science, home economics, manual training, and junior business training, as well as foreign language, art and music. Each school was given standard reference books. Every year a certain sum is set aside for rebinding old books, for purchasing new books, and replenishing books worn beyond repair. Besides these books the text-books of the state are added so that it is estimated that each junior school library has about five thousand volumes. Twenty-six magazines are subscribed for on a nine month's basis. Each library has a stack and reading room. The reading rooms have been furnished with reading tables seating about seventy-five children. Some of the schools have set aside a portion of the room for leisure time reading, and this portion is fitted with wicker chairs and table.

The classroom instruction of the junior school is in the form of directing study and group work. There are no special textbooks. Whatever information is to be obtained must be secured from the books in the library. Pupils are taught by means of mimeographed challenges. The answers to these challenges are found in bibliographies made up of the material in the libraries; so it can be seen that upon the functioning of the library depends the life of the school. There are two types of work done in the library, each calling for an entirely different method of supervision.

To illustrate the first type. A seven B social study class is given a major challenge — "The Growth of Industries in the United States". The teacher, having aroused the interest of the class, has the pupils formulate their own questions on the subject. These challenge questions are then mimeographed as lesson sheets for the guidance of the class. The teacher then divides the class into groups. In the first group she places those who can most quickly and enthusiastically grasp the idea presented; in the second group those who will need a little help before they are ready to explore for themselves; and in the lowest group (or it may be groups) those with whom she will have to work much longer before they are ready to pursue the subject for themselves. In such a manner the individual differences are recognized. The first group goes to the library. Owing to the size of the library and the large number of classes using it at any given time it has been found advisable to allow not more than ten or twelve from a class to be in the library

at a time. As those first going to the library return to the room, others who are ready for library work, take their places.

For the children who remain in the classroom the teacher has left on file in the library a requisition for books needed for the period. These books are taken to the classroom by monitors at the beginning of the period and returned at its close. Children do not keep in their possession textbooks nor do teachers keep sets of books in their rooms to be used day after day to the exclusion of the varied books offered in the library. When a group leaves the classroom the pupils are no longer under the jurisdiction of the teacher but become subject to that of the librarian. When the pupils arrive in the library they have in their hands the lesson sheets, as does the librarian, and the beginning of a bibliography to which they will constantly be adding references as they find them. The reason for not giving a full bibliography is to encourage exploration and investigation on the part of the pupils.

The librarian becomes for the child the director of his studies. She has on file a complete outline of all work for each class to which she adds the challenge questions and lesson sheets as they are worked out. She supervises each individual to see that he has the necessary material, and that he is getting the thought well enough to write it in his own words. Direct copying is discountenanced . . .

The other type of research work is best exemplified by a class in literature. Here the work deals with emotional response and the librarian is most concerned with the personality of the child — his background and tastes. Purposely the child is allowed more freedom than he was in the social studies class so that he may read naturally that which most appeals to him. Here the librarian, in her supervision, must strive to take the child with his natural tastes and build to that which is ever higher . . . An illustration: Through class discussion an eighth grade decided to study the different types of prose, and challenge questions were formulated . . . They were told to get a general idea of legends, romances, etc. from the dictionaries and general literature books. With very little help from the librarian each child formulated his own rules by which he could measure the selections he was later to read . . .

If the librarian sees that the child is not getting the thought, by judicious questioning, she can help him. Thus a great deal of time is saved for some pupils who might otherwise flounder through their readings and go back to their group without having gained much, if anything.

The duties of a librarian in a junior school are decidedly different from those of a city librarian. They include supervision, guidance, and instruction in the use of the library, with a view to an ever increasing ability on the part of the pupil in the use of the library and to an ever widening interest in books, as well as to the formation of right library habits. Her relationship with the teaching force necessitates a helpful and sympathetic association with each member. The librarian must be ready to hunt up bibliographies on difficult topics and be eager to suggest ideas. She must keep the teachers informed as to pamphlets and clippings bearing on the subjects taught. Her duties are not confined to the school. She must reach the neighborhood by encouraging pupils to draw out books for brothers, sisters, and parents. She must urge parents and others to use the school library in every way possible.

Thus it can be seen that the life of the school is largely the library. This plan has been successfully carried on for three years in San Antonio with amazing results*).

Libraries for rural communities.

The duties of the Bureau of Education and of the Commissioner of Education of the United States are to make such investigations and give such information to the people of the United States as will assist them in establishing and maintaining better schools and school systems, and otherwise to assist in promoting education among the people. The library and the librarian are helpful in both, and without the help of these neither can be done very successfully.

Only a small part of the education of any individual is obtained in school. The home was the primitive institution of education; then came the church, the school, and the other supplementary agencies, among them the library. The teacher in the school deals with a small group of subjects in a narrow and formal way. According to the American method lessons are learned and said from text books, and textbooks are not books in the best sense.

But the love of books and the habit of reading formed in school demand the public library; therefore one of the most important

*) **Bishop, Merrill.** Junior high school libraries. American educational digest, 46: 544-47, 1927.

Mr. Bishop is director of English in the San Antonio Schools.

educational movements of the last quarter of a century has been the development of the public library. It is just twenty-five years since the opening of the first Carnegie library, and library development has been greater in this country within this time than in all the years before. You know what the library was a quarter of a century ago. In most cities and towns, except the largest, if there were libraries at all, they were supported by the subscription fees of those who used them, or they belonged to clubs of some kind. Librarians were only curators of books, their chief duty to guard their books against loss and against the wear of use. Public libraries supported by adequate endowments or by public taxation, and open for the use of the people, were few. Library buildings were seen in only a few cities. These twenty-five years have seen the club and society libraries under the watchful and jealous guardianship of their curators give place to the public libraries administered by their corps of expert librarians, whose highest duty it is to foster and extend intelligent use of the books in their libraries . . . Within these years the work of the librarian has become a profession. The science and art of it are now taught in school and college.

Hundreds of millions of dollars have gone into library buildings. Tens of millions of dollars are given annually for the support of libraries. Something has been done for school libraries in several of the states, but with it all, two-thirds of the people of the United States are still without access to any adequate collection of books. In 2,200 counties there is no library that has as many as 5,000 books. This means what? It means that people of many suburban communities, of most small towns, of almost all villages, and 90 per cent or more of the people living in the open country have no access to any adequate collection of books. The time has come for a careful inventory of what has been done and of the much larger work that remains to be done, then to plan for this larger work, which must not longer be postponed. Without unnecessary delay we must provide books and all of the expert help of a trained librarian for all the people of all the states and territories and possessions of the United States, whether they live in city, town, village, or open country.

If time permitted I would like to say a few words in emphasis of the importance of providing books for people living in the open country and villages under rural conditions. For many reasons these people have more time for reading than city people, and will read the best books, of the best type, with more appreciation and profit.

They read less for time-killing or mere entertainment, and more for information and inspiration. Their close and familiar contact with nature and the simple and fundamental things of life gives them greater power of interpretation for the great literature of nature and life than city-bred people are likely to have, and their time for reading comes in larger sections and with less interruption. I have been a country boy myself and have lived in the backwoods, three miles from the crossroads store and the blacksmith shop. I know the long rainy Sundays, the long succession of rainy days during the wet spells of the crop-growing season, the long snowy days of winter, and the long winter evenings with nowhere to go less than a dozen miles away, and the shut-in feeling. Under such circumstances a book becomes a close companion, closer than in the city, where one must hold the attention against a thousand tempting attractions.

It is also true that the laboring people in the cities may obtain comparatively larger results from the use of the public library than do the people of the wealthier classes, who have more leisure and more of what we call education. Dr. Davidson of Columbia University, found this to be true of his evening classes in philosophy on the east side in New York. Those who have spoken to audiences in Cooper Union and other similar places have had an opportunity to see something of the intelligence of these people and the eagerness with which they discuss most important questions.

How may we bring books to these people of the suburban communities, small towns, villages, and the open country? The following plan is, I believe, entirely practicable, and through it we may in ten or fifteen years accomplish this task fully. Every city library should at once be open not only to the people living within the corporate limits of the city but to all the people of the suburbs and of the country districts of the county in which the city is located. If there be more than one city having a library in a county, the proper division of country districts can easily be made. Branch libraries should be established in the smaller towns and villages and at the more important cross roads places, and the schools made to serve as distributing centers. In addition to funds for up-keep from endowment and from moneys collected by city taxation, there should be taxes for this purpose levied on all the property of the county. To bring about such an arrangement ought not to be difficult. The people of the city should welcome the increase of funds made possible by county taxes. The people of the county should be glad to get the use of the larger collections of books in the cities, much larger than they would

be able to obtain for themselves, except at the cost of very burdensome taxation. In this way the opportunities of the public library might be extended to all the people of 800 counties or more.

In the remaining 2,200 counties we should establish central libraries at the county seat, where the county court house is, where the roads converge, — trolley lines sometimes, railroads frequently, county-roads always, — and to which the people come to transact their legal business and to trade. This central library should be housed in a suitable building, of a good style of architecture, and should of course have a staff of expert librarians. There are few counties in the United States in which there are not several men and women of wealth sufficient to enable any one of them to give twenty, thirty, forty or fifty thousand dollars — as much as may be needed — for a central library building. Many poor rural counties have sons who live and have grown rich elsewhere and who in their old age find their minds reverting to the days and scenes of their childhood. These might easily be induced to send some of their money after their thoughts and affections, and thus bring richer opportunities to their relatives and childhood friends and to the children of these and their children's children, for many generations. We all know of instances in which something like this has been done. Mr. Groves, of chill- tonic fame, now living in St. Louis, was born in a country community in a rural Tennessee county. Within a few years' he had given a quarter of a million dollars for a county high school in that county. He paid for a large, beautiful site and gave an endowment sufficient to enable the county with reasonable taxation to make a school of the best type. A splendid building was erected at the cost of the county on the borders of which the school is located. The county levies a tax to supplement the income from the endowment. This man could no doubt be persuaded to give money in a similar way for a library for the county. A dozen years ago Mr. Sanford Brumback, a banker and business man living in the town of Van Wert, in Van Wert county, Ohio, gave a sum of money which his children increased to \$50,000, to be used in erecting a public library building for the county. The city gave the site in one of its beautiful wooded parks. The building was erected. The library association in the town gave its collection of books. The county levied a tax, which amounts to something like \$7,500 a year, for the purchase of new books, to pay its librarians, and for general up-keep. The county now has a new library, large enough for the needs of the people of the city and county alike. Nearly twenty

branches are maintained in different parts of the county and most of the public schools of the county serve as distributing and collecting points. Every boy and girl, every man and woman in the county thus has access to a good collection of books. In this way or otherwise seventy or more counties in the United States now supply books to all their people.

I am so much interested in this that I have made it a part of the work of the Bureau of Education's specialists in rural education to study the problem and to make sentiment for the libraries wherever they may go. I hope the time may soon come when the Bureau may have a group of able men and women who can give all of their time to this work. It is impossible to estimate the good that would come from having central libraries at the county seats and branch libraries in the smaller towns and villages, and the schools serving as distributing points in every county in the Union*).

New York school libraries.

The purpose of the School Libraries Division of the New York State Education Department may perhaps be misunderstood by some people. The division has to do solely with school libraries, and does not in any sense conflict with the public libraries; on the contrary, it seeks to work in the utmost harmony with them. We are desirous of having the school library serve as a community library as well, in localities where there is no public library, and toward this end we are working in harmony and accord with the State Library. Its Division of Educational Extension will send a free traveling library of twenty-five volumes to each school district asking for it. We are urging districts to ask for these traveling libraries. There are three reasons for this:

First, it will add to the strength and usefulness of the school library.

Second, it will be of special value where the school library is also a community library.

Third, it will tend to create a public sentiment that may result in a public town library, leaving the school district free to devote

*) **Claxton, P. P.** Libraries for rural communities. A. L. A. Bulletin, 8: 147-51, 1914.

Dr. Claxton is superintendent of schools at Tulsa, Okla., and was formerly U. S. Commissioner of Education.

all its energies to the upbuilding of the library intended solely for school use.

These traveling libraries are being called for more and more, and we confidently expect to see several thousand of them in the field in the not far distant future.

The work of building up is a slow process. So far, our work has been mainly done in the elementary schools, and has largely concerned itself with making a better selection of books. Very few books, if any, that are in themselves objectionable have found their way into the school libraries. This has been pretty carefully looked after. However, it has often happened that the books selected have not been those that were most useful for the particular school that was to use them. The books purchased might be largely for pupils of the seventh or eighth grades when there were no pupils in the school above the sixth grade. This often happened. To obviate this, we required a statement of the number of pupils in each grade, but this only partially solved the problem. We could, of course, decline to approve books suitable for pupils of a grade of which there were none in the school, but then came up the question of seeing that the pupils of each grade secured a fair share of attention. Here we were at a loss, because we did not know what books were already in the library, the Capitol fire having destroyed all our records. It seemed too much to ask that a list of books in the library be sent us from each of the 10,000 school districts in the state, and if we had them a comparison of all lists with the lists of books already in the library would be a pretty onerous task. Clearly some new scheme must be devised.

On the first of January, 1912, a new system of supervision of schools went into effect in our state. Two hundred and seven district superintendents were elected; each one has the supervision of about 50 teachers. These officers have supervision of all the schools of the state except those in the cities and villages of 5000 inhabitants or more which each employ a superintendent. These district superintendents are elected for five years. They are required to give all their time to school work, and certain educational qualifications are demanded of them. This change in our system gave us a new opportunity. After mature consideration, it has been ordered that no requisition for funds toward the purchase of books by a school trustee will be approved unless the district superintendent certifies that in his judgment the books selected are adapted for use in the particular school for which they are purchased. It may

not be known that in New York the trustee may order books for his school library each year to the amount of \$40 or more, the amount being determined by the number of teachers employed and the grade of the school, and that the state will meet half the expense if the books selected are approved by the School Libraries Division.

We feel that we have this particular phase of the library in pretty fair shape, but, of course, the great problem is not getting the books of the right kind, but insuring their proper use. Here we are still weak. Teachers do not know how to do this work, because it has not heretofore been demanded of them. They have had but little opportunity to prepare themselves. Our normal schools, in their regular courses, have done but little, and our training classes have done nothing at all. It is because they have not been asked to do so. There has not been any demand for such work.

The following unsolved problems are still before us:

1. To provide in all our professional schools for teachers such a course as will fit them to look after the training of the children in the way of developing a taste for good literature as thoroughly as they are trained to do the other work of the school.

2. Some kind of efficient supervision of the work done in this particular in the rural schools, and some help given them through teacher's meetings, or the visitation of their schools, or both. Possibly this may ultimately be done by the district superintendents, but at present they have had no special training for this work.

3. The appointment of trained school librarians for all high schools in cities and villages, who will give their entire time to library work.

There are no insurmountable difficulties in the way of the solution of these problems, and we are confident of success at an early date.*).

The rural teacher and the library.

The school library presents three problems: first, the organization and administration; second, the training of pupils to know and love good literature; third, the training of pupils in the

*) **Williams, Sherwin.** New York school libraries. *Library journal*, 38: 202-03, 1913.

effective use of books. The third of these problems should, I believe, be given first place in importance. While it is necessary for a large library to be catalogued, if a choice had to be made between a teacher who could catalogue and one who know books I should unhesitatingly take the latter. Once teach a pupil to use books as tools and you have given him a good start on the road to knowing and loving good literature.

I have been asked to discuss the training which rural school teachers should have in the normal school, county school, agricultural high school, or teachers' training department of the high school that will enable them to train the pupils of the rural community in the effective use of books as tools...

The high-school teacher will usually have a well-equipped public library at her disposal; when questions come up which she cannot answer, she can turn her unsuspecting pupil over to the librarian. In the rural community, however, in which there is no other source than the school from which parents and children may secure information, it is most important for the teacher to have a broad knowledge of books, magazines, and pamphlets, and to know where to get all material on any subject that might come up for discussion either in the school or in the community. To many teachers the library of their own school is a closed book. Teachers read, but many of them read for entertainment only. The teacher who goes into the rural community will find an intensely practical class of people, who as a rule read very little. It is her great privilege to bring to these farmers and their children the books that will make them better farmers — bulletins explaining how to make all farm operations more profitable — books that will make them masters of their problems. But all too often the teacher's training has not been such that she can render this service.

Rural school teachers above all must become acquainted with the material which will enable them to keep their libraries up to date with the least expense. Too much emphasis cannot be placed on the value of public documents, national, state, and municipal; the value of bulletins and monographs from educational institutions, and pamphlets from big manufacturing concerns. These last, while sent out as advertising, are valuable acquisitions to the small library. For example, the International Harvester Company sends out a little bulletin, *For Better Crops*, in which appear splendid chapters by experts on "Care and Protection of Farm Equipment", "Wheat Crop", "Corn Crop", and others. Another pamphlet by the same

firm, called *Golden Stream*, gives the leading dairy breeds, tells how to care for dairy products, etc. Proctor and Gamble Company send out a bulletin on *Approved Methods for Home Laundering*, which is very valuable in a rural community where the laundering is done at home. Railroad and steamship guides are another valuable source. This is material which it will pay the teacher to know about. We supply students with mimeographed lists of such material which may be had for the asking.

Of course every teacher will not want all of the material we discuss. We always try to impress upon them the importance of getting acquainted with the farmer, of studying the community, and of knowing the needs, and always and forever trying to co-operate with agencies, which are already established, such as farmer's clubs, boys' and girls' clubs, of trying to forward the cause of good farming, and of being constantly on the alert to see what other teachers have found successful.

Frankly, if I were a rural-school teacher I should not be so much interested in whether or not a child read the classics, but I should be tremendously interested in finding out every child's hobby whether it were poultry or orchards, bees or dairying, and, having found out, I should help him to all the books available on that subject, so that when he leaves school he may have enough interest and enthusiasm for that one thing to be able to make more of a success along that line than his father did before him.

If we want the library to be the great continuation school for boys and girls we must early acquaint them with its resources. Last winter I had the opportunity of working in a social-center library. At first the men and boys looked askance at the library and passed by the door to go to the pool-room, billiard-room, and any one of the several other activities in operation. Gradually, however, they began to drop into the library to look at the daily paper. We set about to discover the various occupations of these men and the next time they came in had books, relating to their work, ready for them to examine. In two short months we had between thirty-five and forty men coming regularly once a week for technical books. One carpenter said to me, "I didn't know a library had books on carpentry, I thought they were all love story books". And another man said he had found out that the "library ain't only to brag about".

As soon as the teachers realize how tremendously the library can supplement and vitalize their teaching, the libraries in the rural school will grow and the right use of the material will follow.

How shall this training be given in the rural schools? The geography, history, and language classes offer splendid opportunities for the work. The opening exercises may be utilized. The old game of "stand up and spell down" may furnish the model on which to conduct an exercise in reference work. After a pupil has had the various tools explained to him he must learn to use them by being referred to them not once but many times. Let the teacher begin referring to them the first day of school and keep it up every day of the year.

Without this training, the librarian, teacher, and pupils are handicapped in their work and the library fails of its great usefulness. Such training is infinitely more valuable in later life than knowing a few text-books from cover to cover.

My plea in closing is that rural teachers be so trained in the use of books that the rural library will be the true center of the community*).

Special libraries.

It is gratifying that special librarians have now a seat in the Cabinet. One of the many facets of Herbert Hoover is that of a business librarian par excellence. In his communications with commercial associations, the editors of trade papers, and to the public generally, his first emphasis is on facts — facts as to stocks, conditions, productions, distribution, consumption, prices at each step from material to product. This is, of course, the field of the business librarian; in some relations interconvertible with the statistician. Mr. Hoover goes so far as to suggest that such information is the best possible preventive for the ups and downs, which since the armistice have raised many a business to the crest of the wave only to dash it down upon the rocks.

Akron, Ohio, which in the census decade led all cities in growth, trebling its population to 200,000, is perhaps a case in point. Its inflation was due chiefly to the rubber tire industry. The leading competing concerns employed each a business librarian. It was rumored that the competition was so keen that the librarians scarcely ventured to speak with one another on the street lest the employers,

*) **Ovitz, Delia G.** Training of rural teachers in the use of books. National education association. Proceedings and addresses, 52: 802-07, 1914.

having in mind their respective secret processes, should suspect collusion. That may be an exaggeration, and later the librarians of the rubber companies became members of the Akron Library Club on the understanding that discussions would be educational and that specific information would not be exchanged. But collusion, that is co-operative information, was the one thing needful. If the competing companies had been willing to give and gain information as to the stock of rubber in sight, the supply of tires and the possible demand after the war, caution might have come to the front and the population not been so cruelly decreased, quite as suddenly as it increased; as the unemployed by the ten thousand walked the streets and finally walked out of town. The automobile industry, on the contrary, stood pat and when the slump came it reached almost the stagnation point. The more's the pity as Akron was just starting upon a most liberal and far sighted plan of library development.

Now, business librarians cannot induce employers to be wise; they can only give employers the information on which to get wise. No such testimony has been to the value of their service when it is rightly utilized as has been given by the one man in the world most competent to give it.

The business employer wants his information when he wants it, that is, right away. He must be served not while he waits but while he won't wait. He is perhaps dictating a letter and the human pen cannot be stayed. This involves the necessity that each business librarian shall be thoroughly and instantly posted on his specialty and not have to wait even for an answer by telephone. Yet even within the same industry the different offices can usefully co-operate in obtaining and collating information which each may have ready at hand, thus avoiding at least this much duplication waste.

There are few industries in these days in which needed information is confined to the immediate specialty. Each business seems to touch every other. In such relations business librarians can be of the larger service to each other, and their offices should be models of co-operative community effort. This is the plan which Mr. Lee has pioneered and to so large an extent triumphantly achieved in Boston. As the feeling grows the whole business community is in constructive cooperation instead of destructive competition; the telephone will be more and more a free road which opens out to all knowledge.

This thought indicates the true relations of the public library and the special library. If there is any feeling of rivalry, of jealousy or lack of appreciation between the two, I think it is only in the case of a very few perhaps supersensitive special librarians who have thought that their corner of library work seems small to the public librarian and is therefore unappreciated by him. I do not think this is the case. We have more than once found how the sixth figure in the decimal classification has grown in importance, as in certain developments during the war, until it almost outclassed the other five numbers. No public library can go into such minutiae and the general librarian is therefore more and more dependent upon the special knowledge of the special librarian and upon his good will. On the other hand, a thousand questions come up in every day business which are outside the special or business field, questions of history, of geography, of art, where the public library is properly the source of information. I believe the first question asked of the new "Tek" service for commercial information was "when did the Christian era really begin?" This was properly a question for the Boston Publics new information service and I recall Miss Guerriere's flashing response that she was not sure the Christian Era had really begun yet.

It is interesting to note, indeed, how the two fields merge one into the other. In my early electrical days there was tremendous rivalry between high tension and low tension systems. It was not long before each side began to see that co-operation was the true outcome and today high tension transmission and low tension distribution are universally accepted. The general library, it must never be forgotten, is primarily a collection of books to be used for reading or for reference, while the special library is primarily a collection of up-to-date facts which must be culled from current sources, newspapers, reports and what-not, later than the book of a year or even a month ago. But the general library is more and more developing an information service, and the business information service must have its collection of books. The big wheels and the little wheels must gear in together for effective result and the problem before all librarians is to get the most result with the least effort, practically the least waste by duplication of effort.

In the training for and practice of business librarians there are those methods dealing with books which are also those of the general librarian and others dealing with special sources which are for a special nature. The present joint session of the A. L. A. and

the S.L.A. is a happy illustration of the need of studying and comparing methods common to both, while a semi-annual or alternative conference of special librarians as such, may well be given over to the special methods of the special field. It is, however, within the local community that co-operation among business librarians can be made most useful and the growth of local special library associations in the centre of industry is certainly one of the most gratifying evidences at once of business and library progress*).

The business library as an investment.

The business library as an integral part of business organization has come to stay. A year and a half ago I had occasion, in connection with planning for a business library for a large industrial organization, to look up what concerns were doing. I had before been conscious of a rapid development of the use of printed information in business concerns, but I was astounded to find how many companies, both in this country and abroad, had well organized libraries variously known as data departments, information departments, and business or commercial libraries — gathering, digesting, and making available, for the use of their people, the technical and commercial literature of their respective fields.

The business manager of today is fully awake to the need for contact thru business literature with what others are doing. The popularity of business books and magazines proves that. Indeed, the business manager who does not make use of the readily available printed matter affecting his business is handicapped from the start in the race with his competitors who do. It is hard to find a successful business manager in any line to-day who is not an omnivorous reader of business literature, and it is easy to "read the fortunes" in business of young men and women who are just entering, by noting the degree of interest they show in the literature affecting their work. In application blanks of some companies for candidates seeking positions one now finds such questions as: "What papers and magazines do you read regularly?"

*) **Bowker, R. R.** Special libraries and general libraries. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 45: 411-43, 4921.

Mr. Bowker is a publisher, and editor of the *Library Journal*.

"In reading the daily papers, what do you read first?"

"What books have you read in the past year?"

The business library has come into existence to satisfy the need for systematically handling the growing volume of business literature and making it available for use to all persons concerned within the company in which the library is located.

The business library may and should serve as an intimate aid to all departments of a business. Let me illustrate. The problems of business in general, or of any particular business, are three, viz.: 1. To find out what people want. 2. To produce that which is wanted. 3. To contrive methods of getting the product to the people who want it.

A business must study its market, must note every change in popular sentiment and demand and translate this into terms of production. Every business must develop organization, personnel, and run a plant in order to produce the thing or service it has determined to supply. Every business must market its product or service. All of these functions — analysis of demand, production, and marketing — must be, always have been, and always will be, based on knowledge. That some concerns have succeeded in spite of the fact that their managers know little or nothing about any or all of these, constitutes no argument in favor of ignorance. The more exact and complete the knowledge, other things being equal, the greater the chances of a business becoming successful.

In the past the business manager's source of information were his own experience and observation, the gossip of the street and club, reports of salesmen and other representatives, the reports of special investigators, the market columns of the newspapers, and, to a very limited extent, the magazines and books of the day.

There is no thought of suggesting that these sources of information, as utilized in the past, have lost their values. On the contrary the need for information gained in these ways is as strong as ever. But certain changes in our national, economic life have brought home to us all the need for getting more information and from farther afield. Trade gossip, personal observations, salesmen's reports, etc., are valuable, but they are local in origin and limited in value.

We now know that our business is a part of the world's business; that war in Europe means war here; that trade prohibitions in a distant country seriously affect trade here; that crop failure or success in Argentina or Russia means worlds of difference in business

to American concerns, even to the neighborhood grocer in the suburbs and the farm implement dealer in, let us say, Elmwood, Wisconsin. When cotton prices go up the dealers of the Southern states smile, for that means that their sales will be high, that the people will buy more automobiles, clothing, lumber for houses, paint for their buildings, furnishings for their interiors, children will wear shoes where they formerly went barefooted, pianos will go into new homes, greater variety in food will be demanded, more reading matter will be purchased, schools and churches will be better supported. It will be easier to sell fire and life insurance.

Now see how this change in market affects the industries behind these dealers. Wholesalers will do larger volumes. Manufacturers of automobiles, clothing, lumber, paint, furniture, carpets, shoes, musical instruments, breakfast foods, publishers, and insurance companies will provide for expansion to take care of this southern business. Banks serving these concerns will be benefitted. Back of these businesses remember the effect of the steady employment and regular pay promised to the employes of those concerns, their increased purchasing power and the effect of this on other groups of industries.

The business library has come into existence as a department of a well rounded business organization, to gather, digest, and report for use all such information as may be gained from printed matter and which may be of value to the organisation and its executives.

The business librarian's duties, as it will be seen, are quite different from those of a public librarian. The latter gathers and classifies materials and places them at the disposal of the reading public, merely turning them over, as it were. The business librarian must not only gather, classify and place materials at the disposal of his patrons, but must contrive means of getting information contained in these materials before the proper persons. The business librarian must not only loan literature and look up "answers to questions" but must also see that the executives of the company get the information available that they should have, even if they do not ask for it. I consider the digesting and reporting of information not asked for as the chief function as well as the best measure of the success of a business library.

It is the purpose of the business library to do for its concern what the grocer in the shoe manufacturing town had done for himself in noting the possibilities of increasing trade in one of his lines of merchandise. It is the purpose of the business library to get

and to help interpret the conditions affecting the progress of its concern — its organisation, its production methods, its labor, its raw materials, the changes in demand due to season and fashion, the invention of substitutes, political changes and outlook, and so on. The business library is, therefore, a part of the plant and the money put into its establishment is as necessary an investment as that which might be used in buying the most up-to-date and efficient machinery for the production department, or in buying raw material, or in starting a branch house. Its purpose is fundamentally to help the business to succeed.

While I believe the chief function of the modern business library is to serve the executive in the manner outlined above, there are many other functions which it might serve. If the company has an educational department the business library can give important aid by providing the literature needed for the information and training of the employees who are taking educational work. Indeed there are several libraries which are the "educational departments" of their respective concerns and are performing highly valuable service to ambitious employees who desire to learn more about their work and who desire to prepare for higher positions. Much of the material gathered and digested for the use of executives may often constitute the best possible subject-matter when properly organized for training employees. There is a third value of the library that should not be overlooked, and that is the collection and distribution of reading matter for employees purely for recreational purposes. Personally, I am of the opinion that in most communities the public library either does or should meet this need. However, this is a matter that must be judged locally.

As to the precise dollars and cents value of the business library, it is difficult to testify. You all realize how hard it is to place a value on an idea, and the purpose of the business library is to gather ideas and transmit them for use within the company. It is difficult to trace and credit the value of an idea under any circumstance, and especially so in the case of the service given by a business library. In one instance of which I know, a newspaper item calling attention to a resolution passed by a retail trade association was clipped by a library and embodied in the library bulletin and sent to certain of the company's executives. The news that a retail association had taken this action caused these officers to make a change in its sales policy. In the year following its sales and goodwill increased immensely. Should the profit resulting from this

change be credited to the library or not? In this particular case the sales manager stated that he had thought of making the change several times before. The advertising manager claimed that the new policy would not have been a success if his suggestions for an advertising campaign had not been carried out. The general manager of the company claimed credit for the reason that he approved taking the step, and told them to go ahead. Salesmen on the road felt confident that the new policy would never have been a success were it not for the extra efforts that they made to secure its success with the dealers. Thus credit for the innovation was claimed by a number of people, and the business library did nothing more than convey the news that it had discovered to the officers. What was the value of the business library service in this case? But if the business library had not performed this service, small tho it was in itself, it is probable that the new sales policy might not have been adopted, or at least that it would have been postponed until later and consequently much profit lost to the company. This is typical of the difficulties of crediting service with market value.

The business library, to serve its purpose most efficiently, cannot hope to secure definite, tangible credit on all the work it does, but must be satisfied with seeing progress made as a result of the utilization of its ideas by other persons. After all it is but a department or an arm of the business organization, but it can be made a very important department nevertheless.

From my own observation, I think I can safely say, that no modern concern of large size can afford to get along without the service of a business library. Smaller concerns should co-operate, either by industries or by communities, and secure the service of a business librarian, or get their public libraries to establish business departments with a business librarian in charge. It may be possible to do for several concerns what is done for the one concern where a business library exists.

The cost of establishing and running a business library need not be great. Many concerns hesitate to establish libraries because of the fear of the expense. Really the chief item in a business library is the salary of the librarian and of assistants, if there are any assistants. A great deal of the literature that a business library would use now comes to most business concerns, particularly if they advertise, and is generally wasted. A great deal of additional periodical matter may be obtained at little cost. Much more matter is freely available for use in public libraries, with which business

libraries should form such channels of connection as may be possible. If there happens to be a large public library near, the business library can assist it very greatly by increasing its circulation and usefulness. The public library can serve as the wholesale or jobbing house, and the business libraries as retailers, to the advantage of both. The precise method of organization of these relations need not occupy our attention here.

Naturally, because of the newness of the business library, there seems to be considerable misconception concerning its aims and methods of working, and business librarians themselves are not free from these. For example, there are possibly some business librarians who find it hard to grasp the idea that the business library is a business investment and that it should, therefore, be subject to the same business principles as any other business investment. To illustrate, a business investment should justify itself in profit proportionate to the investment, the higher the rate of profit the better. But according to my observation, when business librarians get together they scarcely ever talk of their accomplishments or the profits turned into the company, but talk instead of their expenditures as in boast of what they spend or what they would like to spend. If one business librarian opens a conversation by stating that he bought 100 books last year, another quickly raises his voice with the remark that he bought 500 books, and a third quietly but effectually vanquishes the group by stating that he has 5000 books in his business library and, incidentally so as not to be thought vain, contrives to let his hearers know that the furniture in his library is mahogany and that he has a dozen assistants.

What is expended signifies nothing as to efficiency. In business it is not what you pay but what you get for what you pay that counts. It would probably be more seemly if, after the man who talks of his mahogany library of 5000 volumes, the second should say, "Is that so? Why I was able to give my company full business library service on an expenditure for only 500 books." Then the first would shame the group by saying. "A hundred books was all that we had to buy last year."

I am tempted to say that the model business library is one without books. That would not be the truth, however; altho there are business librarians, now, who are performing their services very successfully without books and magazine collections under their own direction. They are able to serve their businesses by knowing where, in their communities, in public and society libraries, the

material of value to their concerns may be found. My own view of the matter is that the business library should contain all and only those materials which will receive fairly constant use. This amounts to the same thing as saying that the library should have merely a collection of tools. While consideration must be given to the probable importance of securing books immediately, to the relative importance of their use, and also to the difficulty of securing them when wanted, I should say that a business library should not duplicate what a nearby public library stands ready to loan, if it seems likely that the books under consideration will not be used more than two or three times a year.

It may be difficult to foresee what use will be made of books in advance, but a line should be drawn somewhere. A method of computation, somewhat as follows, may be used. On the one hand you have the investment in the book, interest in the investment, depreciation, value of the space, the cost of care, and so on. On the other you have the cost of the time of the messenger who goes to the public library for the book, and the possible loss due to the waiting for information. Which will cost you least? Your answer to that question will determine whether you should buy or not.

Suppose that a book costing \$2 is under consideration, that it will probably not be used to exceed four times during the coming year, and that its value from the information standpoint will depreciate so that at the end of the year it will need replacing by some other. Its entire cost to the business library will be as follows:

First cost	\$ 2.00
Interest at 6%, 1 year . . .	12
Time spent in cataloging, etc.	10
Expense of care for one year	10
	<hr/>
	\$ 2.32

Average cost for each time used, assuming that it is used four times, 58 cents. The fundamental question is whether it will cost more than 58 cents per time to secure this book from a public library or other.

I question the business economy under ordinary circumstances of buying materials that will be used but seldom. If the business library is not for show, if it is purely an efficient arm of the business, the librarian must work under some new principle as this.

This is not an argument for stinginess in business library management. It does not mean that the business library must be an

ugly or unaesthetic business tool. It simply means that utility must come first. What is useful must also be made attractive, but not by interfering with the usefulness.

There are libraries in some business concerns to which visitors and customers of the concern are invited with the thought of making an impression. Human nature is so constituted that scenery has a great deal to do with forming impressions. To this end, if a business library is to serve an advertising end, scenery must be introduced, but should be bought and paid for as scenery and should be charged to advertising and not to the business library.

The business library has come to stay. Its usefulness has been proved in many places. Its aims are purely economic tho they may be very broadly so. In this respect it differs from the public library which aims to serve practically every human interest so far as literature can be made to serve. The business library must go farther than the public library generally goes in analyzing and digesting its materials for its specific uses. The functions of the business library are somewhat typified by what is done by such concerns as Babson's Statistical Organization and Brookmire's. Public libraries need to have business libraries established in their vicinities to serve as specialized channels for their great service. Business libraries need public libraries as a retail concern needs the wholesaler. Standards of relationship between the two need to be worked out, and will without doubt be worked out harmoniously under your guidance and help*).

Library of the Guarantee Trust Company.

The library of the company was established primarily to serve the Bond Department and nearly all of its material related to investments. This resulted in a good collection of manuals, government reports and financial publications such as the Commercial and Financial Chronicle, of which the library has all except the first two volumes. In addition to the books, there were the mortgages and other documents of all important corporations and of those companies, great and small, in which the Guaranty Trust Company had a direct interest.

*) **Nystrom, Paul H.** The business library as an investment. Library journal, 42: 857-62, 4917.

Because of the limited field of American business, and by virtue of the fact that Babson's Statistical Library (rich in mortgages and other corporation documents) is housed in the building and co-operates with us, this special library served our purpose before the Great War shifted the United States from the position of debtor to that of creditor nation. Since then the growth of foreign business and the consequent broadening of interests, has let the bars down entirely, and we now serve all departments of the institution and reach out for information in all directions. This means a constant effort to build up the files so that any call, however unexpected, can be met. Sugar companies in the West Indies, railways in Brazil, municipalities in Russia, — we must be ready for all this and more.

The publications of the United States Government and of the different states are much used, as are also those of the Latin American republics, Great Britain and other foreign countries. Books and periodicals which treat of their resources and finances are of great value in matters relating to foreign trade.

Some of the most useful reference books in the library are the year books and manuals of the London and New York exchanges, the New York listings, and the daily quotation sheets of the principal exchanges here and abroad.

An important addition to the files is the special division for foreign countries, for which material is gleaned thru correspondence, and thru the efforts of our representatives in Europe and South America. This interesting collection of documents is supplemented by a clipping file, which is very helpful, and is rapidly growing in size and importance. It consists mainly of clippings from the Commerce Reports (the library subscribes for several copies), and from daily papers and those magazines which are not bound for permanent use. Magazines important enough to be kept pass thru the cataloguers' hands before being placed on the shelves. All important articles are indexed, always by subject and sometimes by author. This index, supplementing the file of clippings, puts at the service of the bank, and its customers an up-to-the-minute collection of all that important data that can rarely be found in book form until it is at least a year old. The constant demands made upon this file prove its value, especially to those departments interested in foreign trade and finance.

Any employee in the building may use the library freely for reference work or to increase his knowledge of financial affairs; the students, who are young men in training for the company's

service, make constant use of the textbooks and other material. Altho books must be returned within a limited time, the number in circulation is always over a hundred. The number of file documents charged out is, of course, much larger.

The librarians sometimes do research work here or in other libraries, but do not make digests, as the statisticians have assistants to do this for them. Whenever necessary, the translation of foreign documents is done by the librarians.

All incoming material is sent to the statisticians before it is filed, but no attempt has as yet been made to *follow* the employe, as the librarian of the Retail Credit Company of Atlanta does. This may come in time, but would really be a function of the Guaranty Club, which maintains a library for its members. This club library consists principally of "readable" books on all subjects relating to economics, finance, banking, industrial problems, foreign travel, etc., but is in no sense a statistical library.

In developing the catalogue the aim has been to make all the information contained in the library available thru the analytic indexing of its books, periodicals and file material. As a further assistance in research work, cards of a contrasting color are placed in the catalogue giving references to outside sources of information — material found in other libraries, and in business houses and public departments. Other card files are the calendar, in which every report, financial statement, and periodical publication is entered the day it is received; the directory of libraries, book dealers, business houses, etc., and the shelf list. These aids very materially help the librarians in their efforts to supply the data in which the company is interested as fully as possible and with the least delay*).

Philadelphia commercial museum.

The library of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum was organized in 1896 for the purpose of supplying the museum with such official and other publications, containing information in regard to the trade of foreign countries, as would enable it to bring the manufacturers of the United States into closer relations with buyers in foreign countries.

*) **Mestre, Rose.** The library of the Guaranty Trust Company of New York. Library journal, 42: 285-87, 1917.

There are 38,958 books and 69,239 pamphlets in the library, made up of the following classes.

1st — Official statistics of the imports and exports of all countries.

2d — Reports of the consuls of the leading countries as to the commercial conditions in their several districts.

3d — Directories:

a — Of the leading commercial centers of the world.

b — Of all cities of the United States of over 100,000 population.

c — Of the leading industries of the United States and the principal foreign countries.

4th — Tariffs of all countries.

5th — Modern books of travel, especially those treating of the trade and resources of the various countries.

6th — Books on economics, science and useful arts.

7th — Trade journals and scientific and geographical periodicals.

8th — All current publications of the United States Government, as the library is one of its depositories.

Altho established primarily for the use of the museum, the library is free to the public for reference purposes, and is being used by it more extensively each year as its resources become known. The value of its collection for the study of commerce and its many allied subjects is constantly commented upon not only by Philadelphians, but by visitors from other cities, who have made fruitless searches elsewhere.

In addition to the facilities for research work offered to those who can personally visit the library, numerous inquiries are answered by telephone and correspondence as to the demands for American goods in foreign countries and the names of possible purchasers of same; the tariff that must be paid on the articles sold to foreign countries and the custom house regulations that must be observed; the sources of supply for the raw materials used by American manufacturers, such as rubber, silk, henequen, coffee, cacao, olive oil, etc., and the names of firms from which these products may be obtained.

The library also prepares articles for *Commercial America*, the monthly journal of the museum. Some idea of their character can be obtained from the titles of those appearing 1916: *The World's Machinery*; *Agricultural America*; *The World's Tin*; *The American*

Automobile; American Trade in 1915; International Trade Boycotts; South American Resources; The World's Iron and Steel; A Year of War Trade; The World's Petroleum; The Zinc Industry; The World's Cotton Crop.

The large painted charts on the walls of the library, illustrating the trade of the world and of the different countries, are one of its most attractive features to visitors. They frequently say that they obtain a clearer idea of the world's trade in a brief study of these charts than they ever had from any tabular statement*).

Library in modern hospital.

Bloomington Hospital is, as you may know, a hospital for nervous and mental disorders. It is really a department of a general hospital, tho for a hundred years it has been conducted as an entirely separate institution. It is conducted by the Society of the New York Hospital, a benevolent corporation, and receives no public funds whatsoever. It was formerly known as Bloomington Asylum but has gradually taken on the functions of an intensive treatment hospital; and, especially during the past ten years, has elaborated its organization and equipment in response to the growing requirements of modern medicine and psychiatry. The hospital accomodates 300 patients, and the number of physicians, nurses and other persons employed in their study and treatment and in the administration of the hospital is over 400. Including the families which live on the property there is a total hospital population of nearly 800. In 1914, or ten years ago, there was no organized library. The hospital possessed a good many books which were distributed in bookcases in the various sitting-rooms of the quarters occupied by patients. The hall for convalescent men contained the largest single collection. There was no one in charge of the books and no organized way of attending to their distribution or to the library needs of the patients or the employees. No reference to the library had, for many years, been made in the annual report of the hospital.

The first librarian was Miss Helen Letson, a graduate of the University of Minnesota. She remained until 1922 when she was succeeded by Miss Virginia Frost, a graduate of Radcliffe College

*) Macfarlane, John J. Philadelphia commercial museum. Library journal, 42: 278. 1917.

and Simmons College Library School, who is still with us. The object of employing a trained librarian to take charge of the libraries, was, according to the report "with a view of giving them a more specific place in the active agencies for promoting the welfare of the hospital population". It is noteworthy that the report does not designate the library as a definite therapeutic agency. The reference in the annual report for 1923 comes more nearly to doing this in stating that "The use of the library has thus been extended and the advantage of employing a trained librarian who devotes her full time to the work and co-operates with the physicians in securing for the patients the advantages of profitable reading has been demonstrated". Since the first steps were taken for organization of the libraries of the hospital, there has been year by year a steady advance in the use of the books and in the service which the general library has furnished in the treatment of the patients. Beginning in the 1920 the record of circulation published in the annual report shows the issues to men and women patients and to employees separately. In 1923 the circulation had risen from the 3787 of 1916, and the 6893 of 1918, to 11,616. It is noteworthy, however, that the increase of the distribution to employees, from 1008 in 1918 to 3600 in 1923 (257 per cent), was much greater than the increase to patients (68.5 per cent). Also that the increase to women patients, from 2761 in 1920 to 4401 in 1923 (60 per cent) was greater than that to men patients which was 3328 in 1920 and 3615 in 1923 (8 per cent). This is, in a measure, due to the fact that until 1917 most of the books were placed in the men's sitting rooms and the men's department had more nearly reached the saturation point when the librarian commenced work. The number of admissions and discharges is also somewhat larger in the women's department. The librarian also reports that as a rule, she finds that the men require more suggestions and more urging to read something at first than the women.

The increase in the use of the library has been brought about by the attention given by the librarian. In 1921 a catalogue of the library was printed by the men's occupational department and copies were made accessible to all the patients and employees. New books are posted in the dining rooms and other places where the notices will be seen. The librarian makes regular trips thru the patients halls with a cartload of books. She gets acquainted with the patients, and in co-operation with the physicians endeavors to use her resources in interesting them in suitable books. The number of

patients who can visit the library room is, because of their condition, necessarily limited. In order to inform the librarian of the problems presented by the individual patients she attends the weekly conferences which the charge physicians hold with the heads of departments and chief nurses for the purpose of explaining to them the characteristics and needs of the patients admitted to the hospital since the previous conference. She is also given the opportunity of attending the lectures given by the physicians to the nurses in training. Thus, by means of her own observation and experience with the patients and the information obtained from the physicians, she is gradually becoming more and more intelligent concerning the problems presented by the patients and more skilful in applying her resources in dealing with them. It is only by such methods as these that the hospital library can become a real therapeutic agency, and you can understand what I mean when I said that whether or not the powerful influence of books and an organized library can be utilized in the precise way required of a real therapeutic resource can best be determined by the librarian. Some special fitness for the work is essential. This may be secured thru training and experience, and it is encouraging to note that special courses for hospital librarians are now available. Part of this course should consist of a considerable period of practice under supervision in a hospital with a well managed library.

In order to facilitate the use of the library by those employed at the hospital, a system of circulation has been adopted. All are kept informed of the accessions by posted notices, and the library is kept open one evening a week for their special benefit. The librarian talks to the nurses on books and reading with special reference to the needs of the sick. We can plainly see how this field of work can be further developed with advantage, but the librarian is already fully occupied. Her duties include the management of the medical and nursing libraries as well as of the general library. These contain more than 2500 volumes and, altho the duties connected with them are reduced to a minimum, they nevertheless require considerable attention. The position of librarian has grown in importance since it was established. It ranks with the directors of the important study and treatment departments such as the dietary, occupational therapy, physical therapy, and recreational departments, and one can see how, with more precise training and growing experience, the librarian may become more and more capable of contributing with definite precision to the medical, social and economic care of the sick.

In the selection of books for the patients' reading considerable care is necessary. At Bloomingdale Hospital the lists prepared by the librarian are, before they are sent to the dealer, scrutinized by one of the physicians. The books are then received only for approval. An experienced hospital librarian develops such judgment in the selection of books that little help is required from the physician. Doubtful books only need be submitted for examination. In the same way, in guiding the reading of individual patients the librarian finds it necessary frequently to consult the physicians ...

Starting with a belief in the value of books and reading and of trained service, and a readiness to encourage and support whatever seemed to be most advisable and within the means available, a development along lines which seemed to meet wants as they appeared and which met with approval from those most affected followed. Many of the details are not known to me now, and much of what has been presented was looked up for the occasion with such limitations, and from knowledge and experience confined practically to one small hospital, that one hesitates to formulate general conclusions and recommendations. Having explained to you, however, on what they are based, the following may be presented as the teaching of our experience:

(1) A hospital population needs a library for the same reasons that other communities need one. Even when a public library is near, the sick in the hospitals are unable to go to it.

(2) The influence of reading upon the mind may also however, be used with benefit in dealing with the mental aspects of illness generally and especially with illnesses in which disorders of the mind are the principal characteristics.

(3) To accomplish this effectively it is necessary to have available a library of specially selected books and periodicals and the service of a specially qualified librarian.

(4) The librarian should be a person who is genuinely interested in people and who finds satisfaction in aiding with their problems.

(5) She should by training and experience have obtained a working insight into the problems of the physically and mentally ill.

(6) Probably the best place to obtain the practical instruction and training needed is a hospital for nervous and mental disorders.

(7) The hospital library should receive from the business and medical managers of the hospital well defined consideration and support. It can properly be regarded as a department of special

therapeutics and the librarian should rank with the directors of similar departments.

(8) In the selection of books for the library and for individual patients, the librarian should receive the co-operation and advice of the physicians.

(9) The library should be accessible to all persons employed by the hospital, and the librarian should aid them to select books of value to them. She should also instruct the nurses in the use of reading in the care of the sick.

(10) The medical and nursing libraries of the hospital should be under the management of the trained librarian.

(11) Hospital librarians should, by means of their observations, studies, training and experience, contribute substantially to the further development of libraries and reading in the treatment of the sick*).

Use of books in prisons.

The men have abundance of time for reading. The evenings and holidays are long and lonely in the solitude of the cell, and occupation of some kind is needed, to while away the slow moving hours, if for no other purpose. Books are the natural companions of leisure, and the men who can read turn eagerly to them for amusement, for rest, for consolation and for knowledge, while the illiterate are ready and very often anxious to learn.

These conditions afford an excellent opportunity for giving instruction through the printed page, for utilizing the reading habit in bringing the inmates into close contact with informing and stimulating facts, with the most promising opportunities, with men of the highest achievement, in the hope and confident expectation that the silent influence of books in the quiet of the cell may lead many into a better view of life and a truer conception of their relation to society. For men will often listen to the voice of a book when their ears are closed to the words of the preacher and philanthropist.

One of the first conclusions reached was that reading must be the chief reliance in all efforts to increase the knowledge, correct

*) **Russell, William L.** The library in the modern hospital. Library journal, 49: 4663-67, 1924.

the reasoning and improve the conduct of men segregated from society. Consequently, this feature of the work has received special attention.

It has become evident that to attain the best results from reading in the prisons several things are essential.

First, the reading should be judiciously but unsparingly restricted ... Many books tolerable for normal men and women are entirely out of place in a library provided for those whom the state seeks to restore to health and return to society saner and better for the treatment administered. Again, the reading in prisons should be carefully directed and supervised ... In all penal institutions reform should be the end kept constantly in view in everything that is done, and the means employed should be under intelligent guidance. Harm as well as good may come from the reading of men, and it is only when wisely directed and constantly supervised by competent and sympathetic librarians that the use of books in prisons may be a factor in reform.

Among the things needed to make the educational and library work in prisons in the highest degree effective are:

First. The entire elimination of the debasing and enervating paper-covered books that are being surreptitiously brought in and circulated in practically all the prisons of the country.

Second. A material reduction in the number of titles received into the libraries by the elimination not only of the supremely bad, but of all books not distinctly bracing and informing to the mind and soul.

Third. The employment of civilian librarians of more than ordinary ability and much more than ordinary tact and sympathy; men who know the human mind, in health and disease.

Fourth. The library work should be closely connected with the school work, and should be directed and supervised by competent persons*).

What the convict reads.

Under the operation of the present laws, from 70 to 80 per cent of the convicts are confined from one to ten years, at the expiration of which they will come out into the world again. The

*) Hill, A. C. The use of books in prisons. Library journal, 34: 431-33, 1909.

Mr. Hill was formerly inspector of schools, State Education Department, New York,

prison doors are opening daily to the man who is going out with the prison label still upon him, for the new clothes taken from the piles in the outfitting room are recognized at once by both the policemen and the saloon-keeper. Ignorant, untrained and uncontrolled, he came into prison chafing at the "hard luck" or the "spite" which had put him behind the bars. Detaining him for one year or for ten has made little difference, if he comes out with the same standards of conduct, the same ignorance and lack of control.

When the evening and Sunday hours may not be spent in handicraft, the prisoner eagerly avails himself of the opportunity for reading. The circulation per capita of the books in the prison libraries is largely in excess of that reported by the public libraries of the country. Books serve to occupy his mind during the long silent hours of the day; the scenes are lived over again, the arguments debated, the characters of the history, biography, or novel are real companions to these men taken away from neighborhood and family life.

If the prison library has been the dumping ground for gifts of literary rubbish, if the books which are purchased are low in tone as well as in price, if the language is vulgar, the characters and situations low and suggestive, the prison is providing bad company and poor ideals for the men who are sent there for correction and reformation.

A study of the catalogues of twenty-three prison libraries shows that this is a matter which should receive attention. These were limited to no one section of the country, eight being in the East, twelve in the Middle West, two in the West and one in the South. With few exceptions, they are far below the grade of the average public library of the same size; the classes of history, biography and travel, which should be especially strong, are often filled with out-of-date and unreadable books. It is surprising that detective stories figure largely in the fiction lists, for it would seem dubious policy to furnish stories of crime which suggest ingenious plans and point out the weak spots in the method of their execution.

The make-up of the prison library catalogue is seldom good; of those examined, only fourteen were classified and in many cases the divisions were too general to be of much value. Two were arranged only by author, four by title only; two had no authors given, and one of these was arranged in the order of the receipt of the books.

These libraries have received in bulk a large number of the old Sunday School collections, of out-of-date religious and temperance books; they are decidedly lacking in readable informational literature — biography, travel, science, and books on present-day invention and progress. Books on technical trades are being added to the prison libraries in very fair proportion. The fiction generally makes a poor showing, the quality usually being inferior, although the quantity is in good proportion.

The prison libraries need, first of all, trained librarians, who know how to select books which provide information and recreation, how to care for these books, and how to get them read. In several states of the Middle West an institutional librarian co-operates with the board which controls the charitable and penal institutions. It is this librarian's duty to visit each institution during the year, in order to assist in the selection of the books, to classify and catalogue them, and to train the officers or inmates in simple and practical library methods. If the employment of special librarians is at present impossible, the library commissions of the several states stand ready to furnish aid in the selection and cataloguing of the books. Several of the best catalogues show that such assistance has been received, although in some cases the commission worker has evidently not been given a free hand.

The prison of today is not intended to be merely a place of punishment, nor a life abode for the bad characters who have troubled society. Every man who leaves prison behind should bring to his new life a better equipment for earning his living, better standards of conduct, and confidence in his ability to make good. The books he has read will play no small part in determining whether a man, less ignorant and dangerous than when he went in, is again "on the outside" *).

Libraries for the blind.

When in 1899 I was preparing a paper on "Libraries for the blind", for an audience of librarians supposedly ignorant of the subject, I found it easy to write; but now when I come to address those who are conversant with the matter I find my pencil much less ready.

*) **Curtis, Florence Rising.** What the convict reads. The Survey, 29 : 323-25.
Miss Curtis is director of Hampton Institute Library School.

When the blind boy Leseur, Valentin Haüy's first pupil, ran to his master with a piece of paper on which the letter "o" had been accidentally embossed crying, "Sir, I can feel it; it is the letter "o", then was put into the master mind of that great man the idea he had been groping for during thirteen years; how to give the blind matter they could read themselves. From that day in 1784 the real education of the blind dates.

Since those days the printing presses have never rested. Nowhere else in the world are the blind so well provided with embossed books as in this country. Do you realize that the American Printing House for the Blind at Louisville has in its store rooms and vaults today 2407 boxes of stereotyped plates; that it has on hand 3500 volumes of unbound books, and 1000 pamphlets; that it lists for sale 937 titles, which, with other American printing offices listing 386, makes in all 1323 different books and pamphlets obtainable from embossed plates and so capable of indefinite multiplication? How many of these books may be found distributed in our 39 schools, 12 employment institutions, and 40 public and other libraries, and in private families I have no way of knowing, but I do not deem 110,000 too large an estimate of their number.

For school pupils I have proved to my own satisfaction that, given a type easily felt and well printed, books in variety and of such kind as young people want, together with the artificial spurs of keeping up an interest in the library and of a few compulsory reading periods, 100 per cent. can be made to read with pleasure to themselves. But outside the schools where 15—16ths of the blind are — how are we to approach adequate library use there? This is another story and far more difficult of realization.

People who make public clamor of the poverty of embossed literature do not know what they are talking about. "Yes", you may say, "but most of these books are text books". Not so; of the 1323 different embossed books above referred to, 957, or nearly three-quarters, are what in distinction may be termed general literature. That which the departments for the blind in public libraries most need to do, then, is to obtain copies of books already published.

As to embossed types, there are but four needing attention in America — the Boston line type, the Moon system, the New York point, and the American Braille. All that need be said of the line type is that those who learn to read it well when young generally prefer

it to any other. This is because it is pleasant to the touch and is unvarying in spelling; but it is unquestionably the least tangible of the systems, and for this reason will probably not endure.

There are two point systems in our land, the New York point and the American Braille, each used in prominent schools and each represented in a splendid list of books. Any blind person who has spent two months in acquiring the ability to read in one of these systems can by applying himself for two hours learn to read in the other.

Books in two systems, then, will always be needed — a point system for the young and the able-bodied, and the Moon system for all the rest of the 64,763 blind people in the United States who by any possibility can be induced to read. It is interesting to know and to remember that the originators of these two embossed prints were blind men.

Library work for the blind, then, is as just and proper as it is wise and necessary. Our state schools cannot alone perform it, much less a single library center for the whole country. This fact is recognized in the recent large increase in the number of public libraries which keep embossed books and from which these may be received without delay. It is repositories of books that are wanted, not special reading rooms; the blind even more than most people prefer to read at home. Every means must be taken to advertise the fact that the books are available and that they will be sent out upon request and may be returned without expense to any one *).

*) **Allen, Edward E.** Library work for the blind. Library journal, 31 : 8-11.

LIBRARY BUILDINGS.

There are many forms or types of small library buildings. In some instances dwelling houses have been remodeled for the purpose, others have been designed more in accord with house architecture than with some formal type, and still others in accord with some style peculiar to a particular locality. However there are many plain, formal buildings. The large library approaches some one of two or three different forms, more nearly, than small buildings. Whatever style, or form, is adopted library buildings, as a rule, should be simple in arrangement, devoid of unnecessary ornament, and designed for convenient and economical service and easy access to the books.

Library architecture, 1923.

In New England villages are many charming old houses left stranded by the dying out of old families. If these are well located, then an old house can easily be transformed into a charming library with room for everything, room for the various club meetings, room for exhibitions, room for classes in art or good citizenship. If upkeep be too expensive, then shut up all but the heart during the coldest winter months.

In one community is an old house and an adjoining barn, and I have advised that the great open barn be made into a reading room for the summer colony with a shady porch outside overlooking the valley and the hills beyond. I know another library in an old house where the librarian lives with books in the sitting-room, the dining-room, and I think in the kitchen. Books everywhere. When I am old I look forward to being librarian of such a place. I think that it would make me young again.

Speaking of a central location, this is of such importance that I recently advised a community not to build upon a proffered lot because it was too remote.

In accepting lots for libraries there is another thing to think of, and that is the matter of a dry cellar. We have been given a lot to build upon and then found that after the spring rains it became

a lake and that the only safety lay in a drainage system carried one-eighth of a mile away. Generally speaking, there is good land in the proper location and professional advice should be taken before the lot is bought. In Massachusetts the Library Commission has generally been able to give such advice without other expense than that of travelling.

More and more the smaller library is treated as a great open room separated by low bookshelves, so that the librarian can keep an eye on every corner. Room divisions almost as definite as the chalk line that divided the living quarters of two of Dickens' characters will be better than partitions, doors, or even high book cases.

Should there be a fireplace? Some say no because it displaces so many books and because of the dust and dirt if lighted and because it generally is *not* used. At the same time, nothing is so cheerful as an open fire, so I plead for the fireplace but with it I plead for its constant use.

In addition, the space over the fireplace is the logical one for a memorial to the donor. We are just putting in a double portrait in such a place, one of the donor and the other of her husband who made the gift possible and in whose memory the library was given.

As I said before, much will be done for a proper appreciation and no one knows how many future gifts may be influenced by the memorial over the fireplace.

Should the librarian have a work room, even in the smallest library? Generally the answer is yes (for the exceptions are too few to count). The small building librarian finds it necessary to work at odd hours, to drop tasks, and take them up again, and this makes for more or less disorder which can best be cared for in a separate room, but the work room door should command as much of the library as possible, surely the desk and the entrance. The work room should be conveniently placed near the unpacking room in the small library. This latter room will probably be in the cellar and a dumb waiter may connect it with the work room.

When I speak of the work room as a separate room, I see no need of its having a ceiling. It may be separated from the main room only by bookstacks so as to increase the airiness and effectiveness of the large room.

The lighting of the reading room is a problem that requires care. In rooms finished white with high ceilings it is an easy matter to

conceal the lighting behind the cornices over the book cases, and the light reflected from the ceiling above will give adequate reading light, but in the room finished in dark wood and with a decorated ceiling such indirect lighting would only give general results and must be supplemented by local shaded lights over the reading tables.

The floor of the library is another problem that has not been fully solved, but probably the best is the cork tile which the Metropolitan Museum has used so successfully in its newer galleries. This material is noiseless, soft to the foot and durable. We have used acres of it in Wellesley College and after ten years of use, only the most exposed locations show any wear. Unfortunately this material is expensive, and the next best material is what is known as battleship linoleum, which has a cork base and is about a quarter of an inch thick whereas the cork tile has almost three-quarters of an inch thickness. Roughly speaking, the cost is about one-third of that of the cork and answers conditions admirably except where chairs are tilted and dig holes. There are numerous other preparations, but I have given you the best.

If there is plenty of money the library may well be fireproofed. If it has literary or other treasures it surely should be, but if there is little building money then the furthest I should go would be to put in a fireproof floor between the basement and the first floor. This reduces the internal fire danger materially. If the treasures are kept in a small fireproof stack then you have done enough.

The roof should be of slate ($\frac{1}{4}$ ") or some well-known baked clay tile, laid with flashings of heavy copper and lead on roofer's paper that in itself will keep out water. Such a roof can be neglected and care need only be taken that pigeons do not make the copper their resting place or that the sulphurous soft coal cinders do not accumulate on the copper surfaces. In either case the copper may be eaten thru by the acid left on them. The remedy is to have a steep roof without flat lodging places. If there are places where pigeons congregate, a frequent painting with tanglefoot will discourage even the most persistent bird.

The walls should be fireproof. Brick or stone laid in Portland cement with little or no lime.

Cement grows harder with the years while lime deteriorates, so our practice has been to use no lime whatever but to produce color results with white cement. Cement blocks or cement plaster walls are an abomination, never looking well and looking worse with every year that passes, so stick to brick or stone walls with

slate or tile roofs (use no artificial materials) and you have an exterior unaffected by fire and that will require the minimum of upkeep.

Simplicity is better than elaboration. At the same time the library is a quasi-public building and should have a quiet dignity that will stamp it as the home of refinement and culture. It should be inviting, not austere, and wherever possible, above the book line its walls should be covered with paintings or decorations or sculpture that will make it more attractive.

Now one word in regard to costs. Disregard all cost charts that antedate the war. Buildings that then cost \$ 10,000, will now probably cost \$ 30,000, so get actual cost from buildings built since the war.

Of course you realize that upkeep and maintenance are correspondingly advanced so that in talking to possible donors you may ask them for enough to build well and afterward to maintain in a proper condition*).

Library architecture, 1915.

Questions of library architecture have been considered by this Association from its organization. It was the theme of discussion at the Naragansett Pier meeting nine years ago. The intervening time since then has been particularly rich in the development of library architecture and the recent literature on the subject includes such valuable publications as "Small library buildings", edited by Miss Cornelia Marvin; "New types of library buildings", by the Wisconsin free library commission; and "How to plan a library building for library work", by C. C. Soule.

The importance of a properly planned building for library work was realized as thoroughly years ago as now, but there have been sweeping changes in our ideas of what constitutes a properly planned building. These have been due to the growing complexity of library work, to its democratization, and to the progress made in artificial lighting. Our ideas have changed also in regard to the architectural impression which a library building should give.

Prior to the Columbian Exposition held in Chicago in 1893, our library structures showed the influences of Gothic, Tudor,

*) **Carlson, Henry J.** Library architecture. Library journal, 48 : 4049-51, 1923.

Georgian, and other architectural styles without particular regard as to whether the style was especially adapted to the type of library, or whether local traditions existed; which ought to be considered in planning any library structure.

The superb array of buildings of the Greek type at the Columbian Exposition gave an impetus to that impressive style in this country which has continued with undiminished fervor ever since. It had an unprecedented effect on library architecture, coming as it did in the early years of that era of new buildings, due to the munificence of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. Through this munificence, library buildings sprang mushroom-like over the land and, mushroom-like, was that object of fervid local pride—the ever present library dome, where the heated air was wafted in winter time and from whence dripped the summer showers.

Many of these domes were of stained glass, an expensive item in a building of medium cost, and in others portraits in glass of familiar authors were placed, behind which were arc lights to be turned on at auspicious times, when from the darkened dome there flashed the portraits of Shakespeare and Booth Tarkington, Milton and Harriet Beecher Stowe.

The last decade has witnessed a wide departure from this stereotyped library building, particularly in those states where public library commissions have been most active. In these states successful efforts have been made in increasing number to provide buildings to meet the particular library needs of the community to be served.

During the last ten years there has appeared an increasing number of library buildings which architecturally have sought to embody the local traditions of their communities. A larger number of buildings have also been designed to meet the special climatic conditions of their localities. Consequently, along the Atlantic seaboard, buildings of the Georgian type, and in the middle west, those of an English domestic type, or buildings which in their design show the long, unbroken lines of the low-lying prairies, have appeared in number. In the high plateau region of the central west, buildings of the North Italian type have become numerous, while in the west and southwest in particular, library structures are reproducing the distinctive features of the early Spanish colonial buildings.

Our largest library structures continue to follow the Greek type, and to secure the compactness and monumental impressiveness which it affords, but there has been a notable departure from this

type in our smaller libraries in favor of a style less expensive than the Greek, less institutional and formal in appearance, and more flexible in design. Whatever the type may be, however, there has been a gratifying decrease in attention to decorative details in our smaller buildings with a corresponding increased effort to secure beauty through structural lines and exquisite proportions.

Of late there has been much discussion as to the comparative cost of library and school building construction with criticism of the greater cost of libraries. Such a comparison is not entirely fair, however, for it must be remembered that usually the library building is the only one of its kind in the community, that its work is broadly social as well as educational, that it must provide for diverse activities within its walls, and that it gives service to the public for twelve hours or more every day in the week and practically every day in the year. Even with fireproof construction, some of our newer library buildings have been erected at the cost of but twenty-one cents a cubic foot.

Occasionally, during the last few years, libraries have been erected as part of a group arrangement of buildings in cities where civic center plans have been formulated. The architectural beauty so obtained may in the future result unfortunately for libraries in setting restrictions difficult to avoid should the enlargement of the library building become necessary with the growth of the work.

A desire has recently become apparent in some cities and towns to give the branch library, as well as the main building itself, the appearance of a store. To heighten this effect, it has been suggested and actually tried in places, to provide a building similar in appearance to surrounding stores, flush with the sidewalk and with no entrance steps. Many store rooms with good wall space and light are well adapted to library uses, but the deliberate desire to efface all appearance of a library structure and imitate that of a store room is a sad commentary on the American public, as well as one of its most democratic institutions. Probably the alert citizen who appreciates the value of books and is keen to recognize the building which houses them is quite as valuable to the community as the one too indolent to climb the usual half dozen steps at a library entrance.

Some of our newest large buildings reveal the desire to accommodate the numerous civic organizations which wish to meet at the library. One of the most recently completed ones shows three auditoria seating from 100 to 125 persons each and five committee rooms. Such facilities not only accommodate numerous worthy organizations,

but they greatly increase the library's influence by reaching many who otherwise might not come to the library building.

Such use of library rooms makes pertinent the question: What restrictions, if any, should a library place on the *character* of meetings held under its roof? It also raises the question as to how far a library in a large city should go as a municipal meeting place without sacrificing its greater value as a library.

In spite of our numerous excursions into the kindergarten and other fields of endeavor, most of them entirely worthy and proper, our principal activity as a public institution remains that of working directly through books. The main reason for providing meeting places for clubs, etc. therefore, is the increased opportunity of supplying books. For that reason I would not provide separate outside entrances to library rooms, but would require every individual of our considerably coddled library public to reach those rooms through the library's entrance and corridors. By doing so, the visitor will be brought into physical contact at least with the library's main activity as a tax-supported institution, even at the annoyance of increased noise in the building.

Another feature in our newer buildings which is increasingly noted is that of placing book stacks in the center of the building rather than against one of the exterior walls, usually the rear one. This former arrangement resulted from the expense and insufficiency of artificial light in the stacks, and natural light was poured into the room at the cost of depriving readers and staff of one-fourth of the light and fresh air that should have been theirs.

In the older arrangement, many plans were used to catch the last lingering ray for the stacks, even to lining walls and courts with enameled tiles or by painting them white for purposes of better reflection. In addition to the objection of giving the books, rather than readers, outside light and air, this arrangement had other disadvantages. Natural light in most cities is an uncertain source for libraries, direct sunlight frequently causes deterioration to book bindings and paper, and the placing of stacks against an outside wall prevents easy accessibility to them from the other three-fourths of the library building.

The substitution of tungsten has increased the intensity of artificial light over four-fold, with but little, if any, increase in expense. Hence, natural light is no longer so indispensable to book stacks as it once was.

By placing the stacks in the building's center, the least valuable part of the library structure, a step is taken for greater and more uniform accessibility. One of our most experienced librarians is not content with this, however, but believes that a vertical stack, even in the library's center, will not be the final arrangement for accessibility, but that the various floors should be so reinforced that one or two tiers of stacks could be placed on every floor in the exact location where the books on that particular floor will be most easily reached.

Another feature in our newer buildings is more definite provision for the greater comfort and well-being of the staff. It was Mr. Hitt of Washington, I believe, who stated that in the success or failure of a library's work, the building itself contributed five per cent; the book collection, twenty per cent, and the librarian and staff, seventy-five per cent. It is wisdom to see that proper facilities for the well-being of such a contributing force be provided, and rest and recreation rooms for staff members are becoming usual.

A notable development in library planning, especially in smaller cities and towns is shown in the attempt to make the library building a social center, or to make its activities an integral part of a social center scheme. What is most needed in many small communities is not a library alone, so much as a library in connection with recreation rooms, a public auditorium, rest rooms and, if a separate wing to the building be possible, a gymnasium. I believe that frequently much of the enthusiasm for a public library in a small town is based on a more or less unconscious desire for a social center. It is folly for libraries in medium-sized and larger cities to attempt social activities which can be handled better by other institutions, but new library buildings in several small cities show interesting attempts to make the library building a physical part of a community center. Some possible loss of identity to the library in such a scheme will be more than compensated by bringing the various forces for community betterment into more active co-operation and by decreasing their individual cost of maintenance.

Some of our older library buildings are said to have forty and fifty per cent of floor space devoted to entrance halls, stairways, corridors, permanent wall space, etc. It is noticeable in our newer buildings, both large and small, that space for such uses has been greatly decreased. One of the radical changes in decreasing this waste has been the frequent elimination, when possible, of permanent

walls. Such a radical change as this cannot be made in the larger so well as in smaller buildings, but usually it is found that many permanent walls are not only dispensable but their replacement by floors cases as dividing lines is a decided improvement. It is always difficult, in planning a library structure, to forecast absolutely the spaces needed for the library's various activities. Wherever floor cases can be used in place of permanent walls to mark these divisions, not only will greater flexibility result, but a spacious, open interior will be obtained, with increased light and air.

While numerous radical changes in library planning have been general during the last decade, this is true particularly in our smaller buildings. One reason is, there was much to improve, for as a class, library buildings in our smaller cities and towns did not represent the thought and ability displayed in the larger buildings.

One change which has been noted particularly in our smaller buildings has been that in the shape of the building itself. Many of the older buildings were slightly oblong, others were square, or if the building lot were narrow, the building's depth was greater than its frontage.

Another favorite plan was known as the "butterfly" type, with a central delivery room flanked to the right and left by reading rooms for adults and children, and with floor cases for books on each side of the delivery desk.

Such a plan had certain merits in a medium-sized building, but its defects were glaring in a small library with but one library employee, or two at most.

Consequently, as a result of experience and intelligent observation, we seem to be reaching a more uniform floor plan for small libraries, which shows a simplification in the interior arrangement and a lengthening of the building's frontage at the expense of its depth.

By increasing the length of a small building, several advantages result. Instead of depending on end windows, which frequently abut on adjoining property not controlled by the library, an unfailing source of natural light will be secured through the increased window space made possible by the longer front and rear walls. By this lengthening, a greater separation of rooms for adult and juvenile readers will be possible, with added quietness in both. Another advantage will be to bring the delivery desk forward so it need not be more than fifteen feet from the building's entrance.

Most of our better small buildings also show, when possible, an open interior with a substitution of floor cases for permanent walls; the abolition of a librarian's room from the main floor, in buildings costing less than \$10,000; and the abandonment of a separate book or stack room until the capacity of all wall and floor cases is exhausted.

A building somewhat in the way of an innovation, which offers excellent advantages to a small branch building, or a village library, is, for want of a better term, described as having a "broken" floor plan. By this is meant two wings of equal length, adult and juvenile reading rooms, joining at right angles like the letter "L".

Such a building placed at street intersections, provides an entrance at the street corner, with a walk to the library's entrance, which will be on the inside angle of the building. Directly opposite the entrance will be the delivery desk. At this point, midway between the two wings, the library attendant will have excellent supervision of both reading rooms. The "break" in the floor plan also gives excellent separation of the two reading rooms without the need of dividing partitions. If a librarian's room is to be located on the main floor, it would be built directly back of the delivery desk.

Most librarians and trustees have gone through the unpleasant experience of trying to locate a proposed building when citizens on two rival streets were in arms as to which thoroughfare the new building should face. By using this type of building, with an entrance at the street intersection, both factions will be appeased and a most excellent library building plan will be secured*).

Library architecture abroad.

Gentlemen: I have the honor to submit herewith my report upon the European trip made in company with your librarian and your architect, in compliance with the resolution and instructions passed by your Building Committee to investigate and report upon library buildings and sites in Europe, and such other architectural matters as might be relevant to the problem of the proposed new central library building.

*) **Hadley, Chalmers.** Some recent features in library architecture. *A. L. A. Bulletin* 9: 425-28, 1915.

Dr. **Hadley** is librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library and author of a work on library buildings.

In the matter of the *general planning and arrangement of library buildings*, the general result of the trip was to confirm the impression prevalent among American librarians that in this country the special requirements of library service have been much more carefully studied and worked out more completely towards certain types than has been the case in Europe, where there is no semblance of approach to a general type even in the several parts of the library, much less in its conception and fundamental planning . . .

The most common point of superiority in the European libraries appears to be in the architectural treatment of the entrances, halls and stairs. To the American this treatment may appear wasteful and extravagant. Our library types have crystallized about the problem of the small or branch library, which we have evolved almost into a finality, rather than about that of the great central library. In the branch libraries economy, restraint, simplicity are almost always, and rightly, insisted upon. In large central buildings grandeur of scale and generosity of space are possible and necessary. In our largest libraries, as at Washington, Boston and New York, architectural splendor and amplitude of scale have perhaps been carried to an extreme, and there is no library in Europe to equal these. But in buildings of an intermediate importance, as at Leipzig, Bale; in museums and other edifices of a character somewhat related to libraries, the entrances, stairs, halls, and the most important apartments, are treated in a style of monumental dignity and often with great decorative elegance.

It is, however, in *particular features or parts* rather than in general plan that European libraries offer suggestions. The new hall of entrance of the Bibliothèque Nationale; the sombre and ecclesiastical but beautiful vaulted stair hall of the Rylands Library (chiefly a theological library) at Manchester; the superb stairway and hall of the Art Museum at Vienna; the imposing and admirably lighted semicircular reading-room of the University Library at Leipzig; the truly magnificent Hall of Manuscripts, formerly the reading-room, of the Hofbibliothek at Vienna, by Fischer von Erlach, — the finest specimen of German rococo interior design I know of; the handsome circular library (now, unhappily, dismantled) of the People's Palace in East London; the handsome circular reference room of the Radcliffe Library at Oxford; the vestibule and rotunda of the Bale Library; and the remarkable subterranean stack-rooms of the Hofbibliothek at Vienna, are among the most interesting features of library design encountered during this journey. They

represent the work of different ages and different conceptions, but each of them is worthy of study and offers suggestions to the American designer.

Your adviser paid particular attention to the question of circular reading-rooms. While some librarians, including the Oxford librarian, expressed rather strong objections to this form, your adviser could get no clear and convincing reason for this dislike, and believes it applies, not to the reading-room as such, but to the inconvenience of alcoves around a reading-room of this form.

One of the handsomest of all the reading-rooms visited was the semicircular Lesesaal of the fine University Library at Leipzig. This room, 70 feet in diameter, is splendid not only by form, but by decoration, and is admirably lighted both by wall windows and by skylight.

The great reading-room of the Bibliothèque St. Geneviève (Paris), and that of the Public Library at Amiens in France, were the best examples seen of the long hall lighted on both sides. Where the height is sufficient to allow of lofty windows, this lighting suffices for a hall of considerable breadth, but where, as at Amiens, the room is relatively low, skylighting is necessary to supplement the side lighting . . .

Of the circular reading-rooms visited, that of the British Museum is the largest, measuring over 120 feet in diameter; that of the People's Palace, next in size, about 100 feet; then the reading-room of the Liverpool Library; and the smallest, that of the Radcliffe Library at Oxford, about 50 feet in diameter within the radial alcoves.

One impression derived from these examples was that the *form* of the reading-room is a matter of much less importance than is generally supposed in this country. A spacious room of almost any shape, if abundantly lighted, can be made into an excellent reading-room if the rest of the plan is favorable . . .

With regard to *stacks* and *stack-rooms*, the European practice appears to be far inferior, on the average, to our own. But the Hofbibliothek in Vienna offers a very valuable suggestion of provision for future increase of accommodation. The growth of this great library of a million volumes appeared absolutely limited by the plan of the palace buildings in which it is housed, when the authorities conceived the idea of excavating their cellars down almost to the foundations of the ponderous masonry. These were so deeply laid that the new cellar stack-rooms extend 48 feet below

grade; nevertheless they are not only perfectly dry, well heated and abundantly ventilated, but they receive even considerable daylight by judiciously arranged areas and wells.

The delivery room, as we understand it, hardly exists on the Continent, and the English examples offer no suggestion of architectural value. The card catalogue has not yet won general recognition abroad; and open shelving for public use seems to be almost unknown.

In *architectural and decorative design* the European libraries offer much that is interesting and suggestive, though little perhaps that is directly applicable to our problem. The splendid reading-room at Dresden and the monumental exterior of the University libraries, Strasbourg and Vienna; the impressive long facade of the celebrated Bibliothèque Ste.-Geneviève at Paris, which "inspired" the exterior design of the Boston Public Library; the superb Hall of Manuscripts at Vienna; the impressive, if somewhat solemn and dusky gothic vaulted hall of the Rylands library at Manchester; the monumental elegance of the interior of the University Library at Edinburgh, all suggest possibilities of library architecture.

The libraries at Bale, Cassel, Heidelberg and Amiens, the Leipzig Rathhaus, and the stately stair-hall of the Stuttgart Industrial Museum show the variety of style in European libraries and public buildings, and raise the question of the relative propriety of a picturesque and of a monumental treatment for the problem in hand. In Germany the picturesque breaking up of mass and skyline is traditional, and is often very well done, though one cannot praise such details as the central bay of the new Heidelberg Library. The Cassel Library is, however, a charming building, and the Leipzig Rathhaus very successful in its monumental effect*).

Scientific library planning, 1912.

Proper library planning may now be called a science, since it is possible to formulate certain rules which, if carefully followed, will produce a methodical and rational result; it is likewise an art, since it calls for a skilful and systematic arrangement of means for the attainment of some desired end. The combination will produce a construction both practical and aesthetic. The principles

*) Hamlin, A. D. F. Library architecture abroad. Library journal, 31: 710-15.

involved require the accommodation of the greatest number of readers or patrons under hygienic conditions, and with due care for their comfort; for the housing of the maximum number of books and contents, and for an aesthetic expression of the building's purpose, both within and without. These principles are fundamental, and are applicable to all libraries; they are likewise sufficiently flexible to admit the inclusion of any new discovery which may develop better arrangements as the science advances. The method of procedure is simple: Given a certain appropriation, not over eighty per cent should be devoted to the construction, including heating and lighting, and 20 to 22 per cent. to equipment, furniture and fees. The following formula will apply:

$x = \frac{0.80a}{bc}$; in which (x) equals the size of plan in square feet; (a) equals the appropriation; (b) equals the cost of construction per cubic foot, which for a fireproof building might range from twenty-five to forty cents, and for a non-fireproof building from fifteen to thirty cents, including prevailing rates of wages and material; (c) equals the height of the building, measured from basement floor level to top roof if flat, or half up the slope of the roof if pitched; the height of a basement and one-story building is about 30 feet, and basement and two-story building 40 to 45 feet.

To apply the formula concretely, let us assume the appropriation (a) to be \$ 150,000, eighty per cent. of which would be \$ 120,000. If a fireproof two-story basement library be required, (b) would equal, say, 30 cents, and (c) 40 feet, or would equal 1200, which, divided into (0.80a), \$ 120,000, would give a resultant (x) of 10,000 square feet, which would permit of a building 100 by 100 feet, 80 by 125, or similar proportions, in deciding which the shape of the lot might be a factor.

With the total appropriation of \$ 150,000, we should endeavor to house 150,000 volumes (or one dollar per volume), and to accommodate 300 readers (at \$ 5.00 each), allowing a maximum of 30 square feet per seat; this would require 9000 square feet of floor space for the various rooms destined for the use of readers, such as reading, reference, children, periodical, newspaper and such special rooms as the librarian may demand for medical and historical collections, club rooms, etc.

The 150,000 volumes may be distributed, allotting approximately 100,000 to the stacks and 50,000 to shelving throughout the various reading rooms. The size of the stack may be determined by dividing

the 100,000 volumes by 20, which gives 5000 square feet for a tier of seven shelves, and allows sufficient space for aisles and gangways; this 5000 square feet may be arranged in two or more tiers, as the exigencies of the case demand, giving 2500 square feet if in two tiers of seven shelves each, 1250 if in four tiers, etc. When possible, it is well to allow 20 per cent leeway to these figures, in order to avoid close stacking and to give some free shelf space. Several advantages are gained by keeping the stacks below the level of the first floor, as in the new Springfield (Mass.) Library and the Somerville (Mass.) Library, thereby leaving the valuable main floor space free for readers and reference shelving. In the latter building the stacks are not to extend to an outside wall, but to be lighted by "second light" through glazed partitions, leaving the periphery of the building free for reading rooms. This idea is also applicable to stacks extending vertically through the building, and has several decided advantages. Darkness is better for books than direct sunlight, and an interior stack may be readily ventilated.

A plan, to be economical and well laid out, should have a minimum space devoted to corridors and stairways, and a maximum space for library purposes. In "monumental" libraries recently constructed, only 50 per cent. of the ground area is available for library use, the remainder being given up to walls, halls and "circulation". In the Springfield Library the similar proportions on the main floor are 85 per cent. and 15 per cent.

In the imaginary problem under consideration, with its 10,000 square feet, we can assume, therefore, that 8500 square feet of the main floor may be divided so as to allow, say, for the delivery room 500 square feet; for reading rooms, open shelf rooms for fiction, reference and other rooms as the librarian may designate, 8000 square feet. The basement may need to accomodate heating, and mechanical plant besides stack space, which will reduce somewhat the residuum to be assigned to newspaper rooms, lecture room and work rooms for receiving, unpacking, binding, etc. The second floor's available area may be less than that of the main floor, owing to possible light wells.

The available areas may, therefore, approximate: basement, 6500 square feet; main floor, 8500; second floor, 5000; or a grand total of 20,000 square feet, to be apportioned among the various departments possibly as follows:

Delivery room	500
Several rooms for reader's use . . .	9000

Stack	3000
Catalogue and work rooms	2500
Librarian and staff rooms	2500
Lecture room	1050
Collections, etc.	1450

The lecture room, unless usable for other purposes, is apt to make the least return, and should not, therefore, be too large. For a building to cost \$ 150,000, the lecture room might be limited to 150 seats, which at 7 square feet, will require 1050 square feet to allow for proper aisles; the height to ceiling should be not less than 12 feet, making 12,600 cubic feet, and at 30 cents (the cubic foot cost of our building) will represent \$ 3780 as the amount invested in the lecture room; and since such a room may not be used throughout the year more than twenty times, it makes the "rental" of the room approximately \$ 189 for each time of service; if used 40 times, the "rental" is \$94.50, exclusive of the expense of light, heat and janitor's labor. This showing proves that unless a lecture room is to be used three or four times a week, it is an expensive room, and therefore it is better economy to hire a hall in the neighborhood for lectures or entertainments likely to attract large audiences.

The working space and rooms should be ample to insure the proper running of the machinery of administration. Comfortable quarters for the staff, including rest room, locker room and kitchenette, will yield better returns in efficiency and library results than those obtained from a disproportionate room. A good librarian and an efficient staff are as essential to a library as a competent president and faculty are to a college, and it is equally important to maintain *esprit de corps* and an *esprit d'ouvrage* if the public are to receive adequate return for their financial and spiritual investment. To insure a continuation of such "dividends", the humanistic element should be considered, with a solicitude at least equal to that accorded to the machinery of a steamship.

The comfort and convenience of the public are enhanced by the proper location, arrangement and design of the reading room. The collaboration of librarian and architect are here vitally requisite. The size and shape of any reading room can best be determined by plotting out the furniture. The tables should be spaced five feet apart and equally distant from the walls of the room. The details are too diverse to enlarge upon here, since the individual preferences of the librarian and the requirements differ with every locality.

But a fundamental condition applicable to every case is that of maintaining a reasonable pro rata cost per reader accommodated. In our supposititious problem, we have allowed 9000 square feet for reading and ancillary rooms to accommodate 300 readers at 30 square feet for each. The appropriation being \$150,000, makes each of the 300 seatings represent \$500 outlay.

In "monumental" libraries before referred to, the pro rata cost per reader exceeds \$2000, and in several cases, as at Boston, New York and elsewhere, \$3000. In other words, less than one-half or one-third of the outlay would suffice for library purposes, and the remainder is expended for monumental effects and often to the detriment of the library work, since it introduces two conflicting elements. Aesthetic effort expended upon ceilings and walls is naturally intended to attract admiration and to make the rooms become a magnet for visitors, whereas the primary intent of a reading room is to give tranquillity and a feeling of quiet sequestration from curious crowds. It is as illogical to adorn a reading room with beautiful frescoes as it would be to install in it a picture gallery and expect the readers to be undisturbed by those surging through to view the paintings. In Bates Hall, Boston, which resembles a beautiful "Salle des pas perdus", signs at the entrance request visitors not to pass beyond; the beauty of the hall attracts conflictingly with its real object as a quiet laboratory. Extra enrichment and decoration might better be confined to delivery room, vestibules and stairways, where motion and commotion are to be expected. This does not exclude from the rest of the building handsome proportions and beautiful tints, but does preclude expensive outlay, which nullifies rather than enhances the workableness of the "silence" rooms.

The lighting of the library is of paramount importance, and to accomplish a satisfactory result it is well to follow the schoolhouse requirements and make the glass area of reading rooms equal to 20 per cent. of their floor areas. The light from the windows will be effective in the room for a distance equal to about one and one-half times the height of the top of window from the floor. Ceiling lighting will be advisable for spaces not properly illumined by the windows. Artificial illumination is usually and preferably secured from some electric system.

The heating of the library is usually accomplished by a steam system. The number of square feet of radiation may be calculated by the Mills formula of 2—20—200; that is, the sum of the glass

area, divided by 2; the solid wall area by 20; and the cubical feet content of the room by 200. For example, the building we are assuming covers 10,000 square feet, by 40 feet in height, or 400,000 cubic feet; the glass area equals 2000 square feet (or 20 per cent. of the floor area); the wall area equals the periphery of the building $(120+80+120+80)$, 400 lineal feet by 40 feet height, or 16,000 square feet, less the 2000 feet of glass, or 14,000 square feet. The following formula will apply: $x = \frac{ga}{2} + \frac{wa}{20} + \frac{cc}{200}$, in which x equals the square foot of radiation required; ga equals glass area of windows and ceiling lights; wa equals solid wall area; cc equals cubical contents. Applying this formula to the above figures, we obtain the following result: $\frac{2000}{2} + \frac{14,000}{20} + \frac{400,000}{200} = 3700$ square feet of radiation. If the radiation be concealed behind shelving or seats, it should be increased by about one-third, or, say, 1200 square feet, giving a total of 4900 square feet, to which add 25 per cent for supply and return pipes, and another 25 per cent for reserve power in boiler, or 50 per cent of 4900 equals 2450, giving a grand total of 7350 square feet which indicates the requisite boiler rating. The cost of this will approximate 75 cents per foot, or \$5512.50 for heating the building. An additional percentage of radiation should be allowed for walls on north sides and for ceilings under flat roofs, but 4 per cent to 5 per cent of the total appropriation should cover the expense of heating by "direct" steam system.

The mechanical ventilation in an ordinary library building may be limited to the lecture room, and a possible small amount in the shape of "direct-indirect" for certain of the reading rooms, the cost of which would approximate 25 cents additional, or \$1837.50, entailing a total estimate for heating and ventilation of \$7350, or one dollar per foot of the sum above.

The furniture will consist of delivery or charging counter, catalogue cases, bulletin boards, tables, chairs, shelving, and the various items of equipment for the rooms devoted to periodicals, newspapers, fine arts and special collections, as well as the suite for the librarian and staff; for the cataloguing and work rooms, and for the lecture room.

Our building, as before stated, is intended to accommodate 300 readers, and for convenience we can assume the tables will be the standard 3×5 size for four persons, making a total of 75 tables and 300 chairs. The 50,000 volumes to be distributed throughout the rooms will need about 1000 feet of bookcases, 5 shelves high in

children's room and 7 shelves high elsewhere, and will cost about \$ 3500. Metal shelving can be installed for nearly the same price.

The stacks form an important adjunct to the library. As before indicated, the amount of stack required may be calculated by multiplying the square feet area of the stack room by 20 volumes if but one tier of 7 shelves be required; by 40 if two tiers be required, and so on. Conversely, if we wish to know the size stack room necessary to house 100,000 volumes in one tier seven shelves high, we divide by 20, giving 5000 square feet; for two tiers, divide by 40, giving 2500 square feet; for three tiers, divide by 60, giving 1667 square feet, and so on. Metal stack construction is an invention of recent years, and its rapid development has kept pace with the modern library demands.

The cost may be roughly computed at \$ 2 per square foot of stack room for each tier, or 10 cents per volume.

To summarize the foregoing, we can subdivide the \$ 150,000 appropriation under the following heads:

General construction, exclusive of	
heating and electric work	72 $\frac{1}{4}$
Heating work with limited ventilation	4
Electric work	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
	<hr/>
	78%
Stacks	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Furniture	6
Lighting figures	2
Contingencies	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Architect	6
	<hr/>
	100%

After analyzing and proportioning the various elements of the plan as indicated, the architect's skill should be invoked to produce an artistic building. The scientific or mathematical consideration of the problem resembles the human skeleton, which is similar in child and adult, black, white and red men, but the flesh covering may over one be beautiful and over another the reverse.

It is not possible to give more than general hints in an article of this description, since there are many ramifications which lead off into various refinements which make for economy of plan and expression in design *).

*) Tilton, Edward L. Scientific library planning. Library journal, 37: 497-504, 1912.

Library buildings and book stacks.

Modern collections are large and growing larger. In these days it is superfluous to state that the shelving should be close at hand, easily accessible throughout, conveniently adapted to the accomodation of its contents, and for their economical rearrangement, re-classification and reception of accessories; clean and free from dust, well ventilated with a uniform and constant temperature of about 68 degrees, well and even brilliantly lighted whenever and wherever required in the stack at all times, day or night; conveniently provided with stairs and elevators and, for the larger stacks at least, suitable mechanical apparatus for quick transmission of books to and fro between the shelving and the delivery point or points. These are all important requisites of the modern stack and quite attainable.

The stature of men and women governs and limits the interspaces of the stack, while the dimensions of the items of the collection, such as the books, determine the dimensions and intervals of the shelving itself. Economy of construction, both in space and cost, fixes the lengths of the shelves within the limits of convenient handling. Thus, for ordinary sized books, the height of stories should be seven feet, the space between ranges or shelf fronts from two and one-half to three feet, and the main aisles four to five feet. Narrower spaces are tolerable when unavoidable, and wider ones more comfortable but correspondingly expensive in both prime cost and administration.

Observing these elements, the book stack may be of any dimensions lateral and vertical, covering acres of ground one tier in height, of a very small ground area and towering to many stories in height, or it may be indefinitely broad and high; all as questions of ground rent and other circumstances may dictate. Present resources and ingenuity are equal to the problem of rendering any such stack thoroughly convenient and practicable at very moderate expense.

Although one of the essentials of a good stack is close proximity to the points of use, such as the reading and delivery rooms, the words may be taken in a figurative sense and the object well secured, should conditions make it advisable to locate the stack at some distance and even quite outside and away from the library building proper, as, for instance, on the other side of the street or in the middle of the next square, or even at a considerably greater distance.

A tunnel not unlike that in successful operation between the Library of Congress and the Capitol, a quarter of a mile in length, equipped with entirely practicable rapid transit machinery, operated in conjunction with telephones and pneumatic tubes, would very satisfactorily accomplish the purpose.

I am not forgetting the indispensable matter of light within the stack. It is really the main point I have to present.

Until very recently, in fact down to the time of the incandescent lamp a few years ago, daylight was almost wholly depended on for finding books on the shelves. Consequently the prime effort in design and arrangement was to get daylight into the shelf spaces through windows and skylights, using the ground space and special locations on the lot indispensable to that purpose. This was done with special pains in building the Library of Congress. It has been anxiously provided also, but less effectively, in the New York Public Library, now under construction.

In both cases valuable space and much money have been expended in efforts to secure daylighted stacks, but with very limited success.

Daylight, however, is the most unequal and unsteady of all human dependencies, under the ever-changing position of the sun and condition of the weather. Using our libraries as we now do, almost as much by night as by day, we are without daylight altogether about one-half of the time. During the other half it comes to us on a varying scale from direct sunshine, which is the double of what we need or can endure, to something less than twilight or the reflection from a thunder cloud, which is less than half of what we actually need.

At the first extreme we must draw the always vexatious window shade, and at the second turn on the artificial light, which, however, thus mixed with weak daylight, is unpleasant and unsatisfying to the eyes.

At the Library of Congress it became necessary some time since to devise and install window shades on both sides of the two principal book stacks, because the occupation of the shelves near the windows by the increasing collections exposed the books to the damaging effect of the direct rays of the sun.

Under present circumstances we are obliged to thoroughly equip book stacks with artificial illumination and to use it frequently during almost every day — more or less continuously on some days always, of course, at night.

Why not, therefore, disregard the daylight altogether wherever the expense of obtaining it in any useful quantity is too great? In its place we may secure absolute uniformity and any desired brilliancy at every point possible of every stack with the incandescent electric light.

It is further to be said that daylight is injurious to the bindings and paper of books and that all such material is preserved from bleaching if kept in the dark, not to mention some books that should never see the light on other accounts.

For the reasons thus outlined the book stacks, although the heart of the library itself, may well be located in the least expensive and darkest, if not remotest, part of the library lot, quite regardless also of neighboring danger of fire. The walls being windowless and without necessary perforations, may be made quite fireproof, all openings may be confined to the bottom and top of the stack. They may be few and small and under easy control.

All book stacks should, of course, be kept perfectly dry, and this would practically prevent the propagation of injurious insects, especially if proper care be taken in the construction of the shelving to leave no hiding places whatever for them. This is already the practice in the best stack construction.

By placing the stack in an unimportant position architecturally, no expense will be incurred for its architectural treatment. If it be located within and surrounded by the library building it will be kept warm in winter and cool in summer at very little expense. Such an enclosed stack may be more easily and inexpensively ventilated, and maintained at a uniform temperature because not exposed to the over-changeable temperature of the exterior air.

The best modern book stack structure is a very simple, light, self-contained framework of steel and iron with decks, preferably of white marble or translucent glass, the shelving itself and supports being of steel open work. The separate pieces of material comprising the structure are very few in variety, small and light of weight and easily handled and put together. White marble decks are not only durable and clean but valuable as reflectors of light from below and above. The ends or heads of the shelf ranges and all other surfaces having any extent, should be white for the same reason.

The stack needs for its support and stability only a firm foundation or floor to stand on, depending on its height or number of decks, because its internal construction, including the multitude of

slender columns extending from foundation to top — one at every shelf interval — may be such as to bind it together into one coherent mass like a hay stack. Surrounding walls may be utilized somewhat for stability, but they are not indispensable and generally serve only as a protection to the contents. The stack proper, therefore, is not a building but a piece of furniture which may be set up and stand alone in any room adapted for its reception. When built for permanence, the surfaces should have the most durable finish, or such as may be conveniently and effectively renewed when worn off.

The shelves should be uniform and interchangeable and adjustable from top to bottom of the range. The decks should have wide openings along the fronts of the shelf ranges for better ventilation and diffusion of light and for communication between attendants on different decks, not to mention the saving of material in the decks.

Stack construction should be of the simplest possible form and detail, with nothing moveable but the shelves themselves, and, like a spider's web, occupy the least possible space and leave room for the books. Some stacks are quite too self-evident and occupy space that would much better be filled with books if left available. That scheme of shelving which, other things equal, accomodates the greatest number of volumes in a given space is the thing. It requires, however, ingenuity and a full appreciation of the problem to properly work it out.

The stack should be so enclosed and ventilated as to practically exclude all outside dust and confine the accumulation of it to the inevitable internal cause of handling the books, their attrition on each other and the movements of the attendants and users of the books.

In using a stack, loose paper or similar inflammable stuff should be excluded from the lower tiers at least, as a precaution against fire or smoke passing up through the deck openings. Danger from serious fire may thus be quite avoided, for shelved books of themselves are not liable to take fire and are still less capable of burning and transmitting fire*).

*) **Green, Bernard R.** Library buildings and book stacks. Library journal, 34: 52-56.

Mr. **Green** was formerly superintendent of the Library of Congress building and grounds.

Wilmington library building.

The library is two stories high on Market Street and three stories on King Street, and is one hundred and eighty-five feet long by eighty feet wide . . . The building is in the Roman Classic style and is built of gray-white limestone. The double entrance doors are heavy, paneled, black walnut, each valve eighteen feet high by four feet wide, visible only when the library is closed.

The entrance hall is separated from the library proper by a glass screen about ten feet high, just inside of which will be found the main delivery desk in the center of a large space seventy feet long by thirty-five feet wide, open to the roof and lighted by a large skylight. The limits of this central Atrium are defined by polished black columns. A corridor extends around the Atrium on the second floor, — and the roof is supported by buff columns. The frieze above the lower columns is an ivory-toned cast of the Pantheonic procession from the Parthenon. All the color decoration of the building has been concentrated in the hallway and in the central Atrium.

The main floor is without corridors and with few partitions, one room giving direct access to another and all supervised in a general way from the delivery desk at the entrance. There is an unusually large proportion of useful floor space, and a sense of openness and soft light. Back of the delivery desk are free-standing wooden cases with wooden cases around the walls, shelving fiction and other much-used books.

On the east end of this floor is the main reading and reference room, seventy-five feet long by forty-five feet wide, one-half of which is used for readers and one half for the shelving of about fifty thousand volumes open to the public. Above the shelving is a mezzanine floor open to readers upon request. On the west end is the magazine reading room about forty-five feet square, on each side of which are administrative offices.

On the east end of the building underneath the main reading and reference room is the children's room with a separate entrance from King Street. The children's room is exceedingly attractive, enhanced by the thirteen large paintings above the low bookcases, the originals of N. C. Wyeth's illustrations for "Robinson Crusoe". There is an entrance from this room directly to the stacks and another to the stairway which leads to the main floor.

Underneath the main floor are two tiers of Snead stacks providing shelving for three hundred thousand volumes.

With the exception of three small rooms given over to members of the staff, the second floor is not at present used for library purposes. On the west end of the building is a small lecture hall; on the east end a large room, with overhead lighting which will be leased to the Wilmington Society of Fine Arts for the permanent exhibit of the collection of Howard Pyle pictures.

Both of these rooms can be taken over for library purposes whenever such a course is necessary. There is also an unassigned room on this floor.

The building is equipped with an electric elevator, electric booklift for the reference department, and other mechanical equipment usual in a modern building*).

Iowa State College Library.

The building consists of two wings connected by a wide corridor and in its arrangement corresponds to what has sometimes been called the "H" type. The main entrance is in the center of one of the wings of the "H". The stacks, in general, are in the rear wing. The reading rooms are in the front wing, the service rooms, such as delivery rooms and cloak rooms, being in the connecting corridor.

The building rests on steel and concrete and is faced with Bedford stone. This construction and arrangement make possible easy enlargement in the future. The building can be changed into the hollow square type by wings along the sides which will give additional space for both stacks and reading rooms. The stacks may also easily be extended by the removal of the back wall.

On the first floor have been placed the rooms most used, to which access should be as quick and as informal as possible. On the left of the main entrance is the room for assigned or required reading. In this room are stacks for about 10,000 books to which definite assignments for study are made by various instructors.

On the right of the main entrance is the room for periodicals and newspapers. The library receives about 3,000 serial publications.

*) **Balley, Arthur L.** Wilmington's new library building. *Library journal*, 48: 754-52, 1923.

Mr. Balley is librarian of the Wilmington Institute Free Library.

Unbound numbers of these periodicals and society transactions are arranged on attractive adjustable shelves, especially designed so that the covers of the magazine can be seen without removal from the shelves. Periodicals are grouped by subjects such as business, psychology, religion, medicine, etc. This arrangement naturally encourages the students to familiarize themselves with all magazines published on any subject in which they may be interested whether for study or for recreation. Unbound research magazines are kept mainly in the stacks.

On the second floor, extending along the whole front of the building, is the main reading room. This room will accommodate four hundred readers and 18,000 volumes. Dictionaries, encyclopedias, agricultural magazine indexes, readers' guides, etc., have been taken out of the main reading room and placed in the bibliographical room which adjoins the delivery, reference, and work rooms. The public catalogue is also located here, being easily accessible to the catalogue department of the library as well as to the general reference room and delivery desk. This arrangement saves the necessity of an official catalogue for the staff, and has proved very successful. The location of the assigned reading and periodical rooms near the entrance has made possible the reservation of the reference room for serious study with an atmosphere of quiet. In the basement of the rear section are placed the order room, unpacking room, storage room, etc., with a driveway back of the building.

On the third floor over the work rooms are seminar rooms for graduate students ... The delivery room on the second floor contains display cases for new books, shelves for a small browsing collection of fiction, and a few shelves for books for special exhibit purposes. The stacks are behind the delivery desk and extend from the basement to the top of the building, seven tier levels altogether. For graduate students and research workers sixty compartments or cubicles are provided between the stacks and the windows which will permit immediate access to the books on the subjects under examination.

The reserve room which accommodates two hundred readers is still insufficient for our needs. However, students may take their reserve books to either the periodical room on the opposite side of the hall or to the main reference room on the floor above. Up to the present time this arrangement has proved satisfactory. It may be necessary some time, in the future, to shift the periodicals to the

main reference room and to use the two reading rooms on the ground floor for assigned reading.

The faculty reading room is available for meetings of organizations and for exhibits. It will accommodate about 200.

The building is finished on the first and third floors with oak and on the second floor with walnut. The main corridors are lined with Mankato stone, which lends itself to harmonious blending with the framework. There are no table lights in the building. The overhead light so far has proved successful, but provisions are made for table lights if they prove necessary in the future. The cost of the building, including equipment, was about \$700,000 ... It is probable that our first needs will be more stack space and more seminar rooms. The possibility of enlargement on three different sides, however, would seem to be sufficient to take care of any future emergencies. The building is considered one of the most beautiful on the campus and has attracted many visitors from outside of Ames who are interested in the architectural aspects*).

Minnesota's new University Library.

The new library of the University of Minnesota conforms externally to the Roman Renaissance style of the other new and proposed buildings on the mall of the new Campus. It is of concrete and steel skeleton construction faced with brick and trimmed with Indiana Limestone ...

It is 205 by 181 feet outside and about 72 feet to the top of the roofhouse. It includes a sub-basement, basement and four stories. The second story is of double height (28 feet). The total cubical contents are about three million cubic feet. The cost, inclusive of the stack, which cost \$135,475, was \$1,252,946.

The basement includes seminar rooms, a map room, a suite planned for library school quarters, and public laboratories and locker rooms. On the first floor are the librarian's offices, the offices of the Order and Catalogue Departments, a "treasure room", a standard library or "browsing room", a woman's staff room, and a reserved reading room with 310 seats and room for some 50 more. A large delivery hall with a delivery counter 150 feet long, spacious floor stacks and return slide for books adjoins the reading room.

*) **Brown, Charles H.** Iowa State College Library. Library journal, 50: 532-34, 1925. Mr. **Brown** is librarian of Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa.

Most of the business details of the library and the heavy undergraduate service are in this way centered in the most accessible part of the library and where it is least likely to disturb the readers doing more leisurely work.

On the second floor are the delivery hall with its carved marble counter 45 feet long. It is lighted by a light court about 40 by 100 feet, with concealed electric lights and tinted cathedral glass skylights. At one end is the catalogue of twenty-four cases of sixty trays each. There is room at the other end for an equal number. On this floor are three general reading rooms. The main reading room is 50 by 199 feet with chairs for 420 readers. The periodical reading room seats about 200. About 750 of the most used periodicals are kept at the desk immediately available on call. At the rear are the rooms in which the unbound periodicals are kept until sent to the bindery. Across the north end is the Medical-Biological reading room, seating about 220. In this room and the adjoining portion of the stack are kept the collections in medicine and its allied branches, botany, animal biology, dentistry and pharmacy. The rooms have general illumination from chandeliers. They are also provided with desk lights made on the principle of those used in the University of Michigan and the John Crerar Library.

The third floor includes a series of seminar library rooms, seminar discussion rooms and eight individual studies for scholars engaged in preparing important material for publication. The seminar libraries are in three groups: education and psychology, history and geography, literature and philology. Each group has communicating rooms with central control. The floor is lighted from the outside and from the central light court above the Delivery Hall skylight. The fourth, or attic floor contains the bindery and space for additional seminars and studies when they become necessary.

This arrangement of rooms to a large degree takes care of the needs of three special classes of users: undergraduate reading on the first floor; more general, and voluntary reference work as well as general loans, on the second floor; and special facilities as to quiet and space for faculty and advanced students on the third and fourth floors.

The stack is a twelve-story self-supporting unit, 96 feet wide, 60 feet deep and 95 feet high. The fifth, seventh, eleventh and twelfth levels communicate respectively with the first, second, third and fourth floors of the main building . . . The upper eight levels are completed. The main structural work of the lower levels is also

of necessity complete. When more shelves are needed, only uprights, shelves and floors will be necessary. The stack is finished in light gray, which not only reflects considerable light, but does not readily soil. The aisles are of Kasota marble. At the rear of each completed stack (except the twelfth) is a series of ten carrels or "cubicles". A service elevator connects all stack floors. The completed portion has an estimated capacity of about 750,000 volumes. The unfinished portion and a vacant space below the delivery hall will take care of as many more. About 50,000 can be shelved in seminar and other special rooms. If necessary, storage stacks to accommodate nearly an additional 500,000 can be erected in the sub-basement.

The building has been planned primarily for use, tho the artistic features are not neglected. The walls of the main corridors and stair halls, as well as of the main reading room are of Mankato Travertine, a warm, tinted stone very easy on the eye. It is said to be almost identical with the famous Roman Travertine. The walls of the other three reading rooms are of mottled parchment hue, an excellent light diffuser and not easily soiled. The offices and minor corridors are painted sunshine buff. The cleaning strips and marble trim are of Green Alps marble. The floors are of linotile in the main reading rooms and of heavy brown linoleum in offices and work-rooms.

Washstands are provided in abundance. The mechanical ventilating system, the electric window controls and the lighting system are divided into numerous units to permit economy as well as to prevent complete disabling of service. Intercommunicating telephones and regular Bell telephones connect the offices and the other buildings on the campus. There is a public automatic elevator to the top floors and a staff and faculty elevator to the second floor. Closets and storage spaces are numerous.

With the completion of the new building, the Regents of the University adopted a centralized library policy based on recommendations of the Library Committee of the University Senate. Hereafter, no separate libraries are to be maintained or established except with the approval of the Regents and the President of the University. The University Librarian is directed to provide in the Main Library, as far as practicable, for all special collections. The building has lent itself readily to this changed policy*).

*) **Walter, Frank K.** Minnesota's new University Library. Library journal, 49: 1029-32. 1924.

Mr. **Walter** is librarian of the University of Minnesota Library.

HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF LIBRARY SERVICE.

The early history of libraries is fragmentary, consisting chiefly of a mention here and there in Greek and Roman literature. However there were public libraries in both Greece and Rome, and in some instances private collections of considerable size. During the middle ages, 500 to about 1,500, the collections, numbering a few thousand at most were chiefly in the monasteries and schools. During the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, at different places and dates, small collections were gradually assembled and thus the older libraries of today were founded. The period of most rapid development and growth of the libraries in the United States, Germany, England, France, and some other countries, began with the latter half of the nineteenth century and still continues. Furthermore the movement is now spreading to all civilized countries.

A. EARLY HISTORY OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES.

Libraries of Greece and Rome.

After the death of Alexander the Great (B. C. 323) a Greek dynasty, that of the Ptolemies, established itself at Alexandria, and another Greek dynasty at Pergamon. Both were distinguished — like Italian despots of the Renaissance — for the splendor and the culture of their courts, and they rivalled one another in the extent and richness of their libraries; but, if we are to believe Strabo, the library at Pergamon was not begun until the reign of Eumenes II. (B. C. 197-159), or 126 years after that at Alexandria.

The libraries at Alexandria (for there were two) — though far more celebrated and more extensive than the library at Pergamon — need not from my point of view, detain us for more than a moment, for we are told very little about their position, and nothing about their arrangement. The site of the earliest, the foundation of which is ascribed to Ptolemy the Second (B. C. 285-247), must undoubtedly be sought for within the circuit of

the royal palace, which was in the fashionable quarter of the city called Brucheion. This palace was a vast enceinte, not a separate building, and, as Strabo, who visited Alexandria 24 B.C., says:

"Within the precincts of the palace is the Museum. It has a colonnade, a lecture-room, and a vast establishment where the men of letters who share the use of the Museum take their meals together. This College has a common revenue; and is managed by a priest who is over the Museum, an officer formerly appointed by the kings of Egypt, but, at the present time, by the Emperor."

That the older of the two libraries must have been in some way connected with these buildings seems to me certain from two considerations. First, a ruler who took so keen an interest in books as Ptolemy, would assuredly have kept his treasures under his own eye; and, secondly, he would hardly have placed them at a distance from the spot where the learned men of Alexandria held their meetings.

At some period subsequent to the foundation of Ptolemy's first library, a second, called the daughter of the first, was established in connexion with the Temple of Seraphis, a magnificent structure in the quarter Rhacotis, adorned so lavishly with colonnades, statuary, and other architectural enrichments, that the historian Ammianus Marcellinus declares that nothing in the world could equal it, except the Roman Capitol.

This brief notice of the libraries of Alexandria shows that the earlier of the two, besides being in a building dedicated to the Muses, was also connected in all probability with a palace, and the second with a temple. If we now turn to Pergamon, we shall find the library associated with the temple of Athena.

The founder selected for the site of his city a lofty and precipitous hill, about a thousand feet above the sea-level. The rocky plateau which forms the summit is divided into three gigantic steps or terraces. On the highest, which occupies the northern end of the hill, the royal palace is believed to have been built. On the next terrace, to the south, was the temple of Athena; and on the third, the altar of Zeus. External to those three groups of buildings, partly on the edge of the hill, partly on its sides, were the rest of the public buildings. The lower slopes were probably occupied in ancient times, as at present, by the houses of the citizens.

These magnificent structures, which won for Pergamon the distinction of being "by far the noblest city in Asia Minor", were in the main due to Eumenes the Second, who, during his reign of

nearly forty years, was enabled, by the wise policy of supporting the Romans, to transform his petty state into a powerful monarchy. The construction of a library is especially referred to him by Strabo, and from the statement of Vitruvius that it was built for the delight of the world at large, we may infer that it was intended to be public. That he was an energetic book-collector, under whose direction a large staff of scribes was perpetually at work, may be gathered from the well-known story that his bibliographical rival at Alexandria, exasperated by his activity and success, conceived the ingenious device of crippling his endeavors by forbidding the exportation of papyrus. Eumenes, however, says the chronicler, was equal to the occasion, and defeated the scheme by inventing parchment. It is probable that Eumenes not only began but completed the library, for in less than a quarter of a century after his death (B. C. 133) the last of his descendants bequeathed the city and state of Pergamon to the Romans. It is improbable that they would do much to increase the library, though they evidently took care of it, for ninety years later, when Mark Antony is said to have given it to Cleopatra, the number of works in it amounted to two hundred thousand.

When the Romans took possession of Pergamon, those who had charge of the city would become familiar with the library; and it seems to me almost certain that, when the necessity for establishing a public library at Rome had been recognized, the splendid structure at Pergamon would be turned to as a model. But, if I mistake not, Roman architecture had received an influence from Pergamon long before this event occurred. What this was I will mention presently.

No public library was established in Rome until the reign of Augustus. Julius Caesar had intended to build one on the largest possible scale, and had gone so far as to commission Varro to collect books for it; but it was reserved for C. Asinius Pollio, general, lawyer, orator, poet, the friend of Virgil and Horace; to devote to this purpose the spoils he had obtained in his Illyrian campaign, B. C. 39. In the striking words of Pliny "he was the first to make men's talents public property". The same writer tells us that he also introduced the fashion of decorating libraries with busts of departed authors, and that Varro was the only living writer whose portrait was admitted.

The work of Pollio is recorded among the acts of generosity which Augustus suggested to others. But before long the emperor

turned his own attention to libraries, and enriched his capital with two splendid structures which may be taken as types of Roman libraries, — the library of Apollo on the Palatine Hill, and that in the Campus Martius called after Octavia, sister to the emperor.

The temple and area of Apollo on the Palatine Hill, which Augustus began B. C. 36 and dedicated B. C. 28, exhibit an arrangement precisely similar to that of Porticus Octaviae. The size was nearly the same, and the structures included in the area were intended to serve the same purposes. The temple stood in the middle of a large open peristyle, connected with which were two libraries, one for Greek, the other for Latin books; and between them, used perhaps as a reading-room or vestibule, was a hall in which Augustus occasionally convened the Senate. It contained a colossal statue of Apollo, made of gilt bronze; and on its walls were portrait-reliefs of celebrated writers, in the form of medallions, in the same material.

Of the other public libraries of Rome — of which there are said to have been in all twenty-six — I need mention only three as possessing some peculiarity to which I shall have to draw attention. Of these the first was established by Tiberius in his palace, at no great distance from the library of Apollo; the second and third by Vespasian and Trajan in their Fora, connected in the one with the temple of Peace, and in the other with the temple dedicated in honor of Trajan himself.

Of the first two of these libraries we have no information; but in the case of the third we are more fortunate. The Forum of Trajan was excavated by order of Napoleon I, and the extent of its buildings, with their relation to one another, is therefore known with approximate accuracy. The Greek and Latin libraries stood to the right and left of the small court between the *Basilica Ulpia* and the *Templum Divi Trajani*, the centre of which was marked by the existing Column. They were entered from this court, each through a portico of five intercolumniations. The rooms, measured internally, were about 60 feet long by 45 feet broad.

In the first place those built by Augustus had a regular organization. There appears to have been a general director called *Procurator Bibliothecarum Augusti*; and subordinate officers for each division: that is to say, one for the Greek books, one for the Latin books. These facts are derived from inscriptions found in columbaria. Secondly, it may be concluded that they were used not

merely for reading and reference, but as meeting-places for literary men.

The Palatine libraries evidently contained a large collection of old and new books; and I think it quite certain that new books, as soon as published, were placed there, unless there was some special reason to the contrary. Otherwise there would be no point in the lines in which Ovid makes his book — sent from Pontus after his banishment — deplore its exclusion.

Aulus Gellius, who lived A. D. 117-180, speaks of "sitting with a party of friends in the library of the palace of Tiberius, when a book happened to be taken down with the title *M. Catonis Nepotis*", and they began asking one another who this Cato Nepos might be. This library contained also public records.

The library in the forum of Trajan, often called *Bibliotheca Ulpia*, was apparently the Public Record Office of Rome. Aulus Gellius mentions that some decrees of former praetors had fallen in his way there when he was looking for something else, and that he had been allowed to read them; and a statement of Vopiscus is still more conclusive as to the nature of its contents. It tells us, moreover, something about the arrangement. In his life of the Emperor Tacitus, Vopiscus says:

"And lest anybody should think that I have given too hasty a credence to a Greek or Latin author, the Ulpian Library has in its sixth press an ivory volume in which the following decree of the Senate, signed by Tacitus with his own hand, is recorded, etc."

Books could occasionally be borrowed from a public library, but whether from one of those in the city of Rome, I cannot say.

It is probable that numerous collections of books had been got together by individuals in Rome, before it occurred to Augustus and his friends to erect public libraries. One such library, that belonging to the rich and luxurious Lucullus, has been noticed as follows by Plutarch:

"His procedure in regard to books was interesting and remarkable. He collected fine copies in large numbers; and if he was splendid in their acquisition, he was more so in their use. His libraries were accessible to all, and the adjoining colonnades and reading-rooms were freely open to Greeks, who, gladly escaping from the routine of business, resorted thither for familiar converse, as to a shelter presided over by the Muses."

The Romans were not slow in following the example set by

Lucullus; and a library presently became indispensable in every house, whether the owner cared for reading or not.

A room was discovered at Herculaneum in 1754 ... The information which observers have given us amounts to this: the room was about 12 feet long, with a floor of mosaic. Against the walls stood presses, of a man's height, inlaid with different sorts of wood, disposed in rows, with cornices at the top; and there was also a table, or press, in the center of the room. Most of the rolls were separate, but a bundle of eighteen was found "wrapped about with the bark of tree, and covered at each end with a piece of wood". A room so small as this could hardly have been intended for study. It must rather have been the place where books were put away after they had been read elsewhere.

I explained at the beginning of this chapter that my subject is the care of books, not books themselves; but, at the point which we have now reached in regard to Roman libraries, it is necessary to make a few remarks about their contents. It must be remembered, in the first place, that those who fitted them up had to deal with rolls, probably of papyrus, but possibly of parchment; and that a book, as we understand the word, the Latin equivalent for which was *codex*, did not come into general use until long after the Christian era. Some points about these rolls require notice.

The length and width of the roll depended on the taste or convenience of the writer. The contents were written in columns, the lines of which ran parallel to the long dimension, and the reader, holding the roll in both hands, rolled up the part he had finished with the left hand, and unrolled the unread portion with his right ... In most examples the two halves of the roll are turned inwards, as for instance in the well-known statue of Demosthenes in the Vatican. The end of the roll was fastened to a stick (usually referred to as *umbilicus* or *umbilici*). It is obvious that this word ought properly to denote the ends of the stick only, but it was constantly applied to the whole stick, and not to a part of it.

These sticks were sometimes painted or gilt, and furnished with projecting knobs similarly decorated, intended to serve both as an ornament and as a contrivance to keep the ends of the roll even, while it was being rolled up. The sides of the long dimension of the roll were carefully cut, so as to be perfectly symmetrical, and afterwards smoothed with pumicestone and coloured. A ticket, made of a piece of papyrus or parchment, was fastened to the edge

of the roll in such a way that it hung out over one or other of the ends.

The roll was kept closed by strings or straps, usually of some bright colour; and if it was specially precious, an envelope which the Greeks called a jacket, made of parchment or some other substance, was provided.

When a number of rolls had to be carried from one place to another, they were put into a box. This receptacle was cylindrical in shape, not unlike a modern hat-box. It was carried by a flexible handle, attached to a ring on each side; and the lid was held down by what looks very like a modern lock. The eighteen rolls, found in the bundle at Herculaneum, had doubtless been kept in a similar receptacle . . .

After a careful study of the passages in which they occur, I conclude that, so long as rolls only had to be accommodated, private libraries in Rome were fitted with rows of shelves standing against the walls, or fixed to them. The space between these horizontal shelves was subdivided by vertical divisions into pigeon-holes, and it may be conjectured that the width of these pigeon-holes would vary in accordance with the number of rolls included in a single work. That such receptacles were the common furniture of a library is proved, I think, by such evidence as the epigram of Martial quoted above, in which he tells his friend that if he will accept his poems, he may "put them even in the lowest pigeon-hole", as we should say, "on the bottom shelf".

The height of the woodwork varied, of course, with individual taste. In the library on the Esquiline the height was only three feet six inches; at Herculaneum about six feet.

The ends of the rolls are furnished with tickets . . . The system of pigeon-holes terminated, in all probability, in a cornice. The explorers of Herculaneum depose to the discovery of such an ornament there.

The wall-space above the book-cases was decorated with the likeness of celebrated authors — either philosophers, if the owner of the library wished to bring into prominence his adhesion to one of the fashionable systems — or authors, dead and living, or personal friends. This obvious form of decoration was, in all probability, used at Pergamon; Pollio, as we have seen, introduced it into Rome; and Pliny, who calls it a novelty, deposes to its general adoption.

When books (codices), of a shape similar to that with which modern librarians have to deal, had to be accommodated as well as

rolls, it is manifest that rectangular spaces not more than a few inches wide would be singularly inconvenient. They were therefore discarded in favour of a press, a piece of furniture which would hold rolls as well as books, and was in fact, as I shall show, used for both purposes. The word, *armarium*, occurs commonly in Cicero, and other writers of the best period, for a piece of furniture in which valuables of all kinds, and household gear, were stowed away; and Vitruvius used it for a book-case. A critic, he says, "produced from certain presses an infinite number of rolls". In later Latin writers — that is, from the middle of the first century A.D. — no other word, speaking generally, occurs.

Unfortunately, no enthusiast of those distant times has handed down to us a complete description of his library, and we are obliged to take a detail from one account, and a detail from another, and so piece the picture together for ourselves. What I may call the "pigeon-hole system", suitable for rolls only, was replaced by presses which could contain rolls if required, and certainly did, but which were specially designed for *codices*. These presses were sometimes plain, sometimes richly ornamented, according to the taste or the means of the owner. With the same limitations the floor, the walls, and possibly the roof also were decorated. Further it was evidently intended that the room selected for books should be used for no other purpose; and, as the books were hidden from view in their presses, the library-note, if I may be allowed the expression, was struck by numerous inscriptions, and by portraits in various materials, representing either authors whose works were on the shelves, or men distinguished in other ways, or friends of the owner of the house.

I have next to consider the libraries formed by monastic communities, the origin of which may be traced to very early times. Among the Christians of the first three centuries there were enthusiasts who, discontented with the luxurious life they led in the populous cities along the coasts of Africa and Syria, fled into the Egyptian deserts, there to lead a life of rigorous self-denial and religious contemplation. These hermits were presently joined by other hermits, and small communities were gradually formed, with a regular organization that foreshadowed the Rules and Customs of the later monastic life. Those who governed these primitive monasteries soon realized the fact that without books their inmates would relapse into barbarism, and libraries were got together. The rule of S. Achomius (A.D. 292-345), whose monastery was at

Tabennisi near Denderah in Upper Egypt, provides that the books of the House are to be kept in a cupboard in the thickness of the wall. Any brother who wanted a book might have one for a week, at the end of which he was bound to return it. No brother might leave a book open when he went to church or to his meals. In the evening the officer called "the Second", that is, the second in command, was to take charge of the books, count them, and lock them up.

These provisions, insisted upon at a very early date, form a suitable introduction to the most important section of my subject — the care of books by Monastic Orders . . . With them book-preserving and book-producing were reduced to a system, and in the libraries — the public libraries of the Middle Ages — literature found a home, until the invention of printing handed over to the world at large the duties which had been so well discharged by special communities.

The Rule of St. Benedict was made public early in the sixth century; and the later Orders were but offshoots of the Benedictine tree, either using his Rule or basing their own statutes upon it. It will therefore be desirable to begin this research by examining what St. Benedict said on the subject of study, and I will translate a few lines from the 48th chapter of his Rule, *Of daily manual labor*.

"Idleness is the enemy of the soul; hence brethren ought, at certain seasons, to occupy themselves with manual labor, and again, at certain hours, with holy reading . . .

Between Easter and the calends of October let them apply themselves to reading from the fourth hour till near the sixth hour.

From the calends of October to the beginning of Lent let them apply themselves to reading until the second hour . . . During Lent, let them apply themselves to reading from morning until the end of the third hour . . . and, in these days of Lent, let them receive a book apiece from the library, and read it straight through. These books are to be given out at the beginning of Lent."

In this passage the *library* — by which a book-press is probably to be understood — is specially mentioned. In other words, at that early date the formation of a collection of books was contemplated, large enough to supply the community with a volume apiece, without counting the service-books required for use in the church.

The Benedictine Order flourished and increased abundantly for more than four centuries, until, about A.D. 912, the order of Cluni was established. It was so called from the celebrated abbey near

Macon in Burgundy, which, though not the first house of the Order in point of date, became subsequently the first in extent, wealth, and reputation. As a stricter observance of the Rule of St. Benedict was the main object which the founder of this Order had in view, the Benedictine directions respecting study are maintained and developed. The Customs prescribe the following regulations for books:

"On the second day of Lent the only passage of the Rule to be read in chapter is that concerning the observance of Lent.

Then shall be read aloud a note (*brevis*) of the books which a year before had been given out to brethren for their reading. When a brother's name is called, he rises, and returns the book that had been given to him; and if it should happen that he has not read it through, he is to ask forgiveness for his want of diligence.

A carpet on which those books are to be laid out is to be put down in the Chapter-House; and the titles of those which are distributed to brethren afresh are to be noted, for which purpose a tablet is to be made of somewhat larger size than usual."

The Carthusians — the second offshoot of the Benedictine tree (1084) — also preserved the primitive tradition of study. They not only read themselves, but were actively employed in writing books for others. In the chapter of their statutes which deals with furniture allowed to each "tenant of a cell" — (for in this community each brother lived apart, with his sitting-room, bed-room, and plot of garden-ground) — all the articles needful for writing are enumerated, "for nearly all those whom we adopt we teach, if possible, to write", and then the writer passes on to books.

"Moreover he — (the tenant of the cell) — receives two books out of the press for reading. He is admonished to take the utmost care and pains that they be not soiled by smoke or dust or dirt of any kind; "for it is our wish that books, as being the perpetual food of our souls, should be most jealously guarded, and most carefully produced, that we, who cannot preach the word of God with our lips, may preach it with our hands".

The Cistercian Order — founded 1128 — adopted the Benedictine Rule, and with it the obligation of study and writing. Moreover, in their anxiety to take due care of their books, they went further than their predecessors; for they entrusted them to a special officer instead of to the precentor, and they admitted a special room to contain them into the ground-plan of their houses.

It is evident that the loan of books to persons in general, on adequate security, began at a very early date. On this account I have already ventured to call monastic libraries the public libraries of the Middle Ages. As time went on, the practice was developed, and at last became general. It was even enjoined upon monks as a duty by their ecclesiastical superiors.

In the same century (13th) many volumes were bequeathed to the Augustinia House of St. Victor, Paris, on the express condition that they should be so lent. It is almost needless to add that one abbey was continually lending to another, either for reading or for copying.

When we try to realize the feelings with which monastic communities regarded books, it must always be remembered that they had a paternal interest in them. In many cases they had been written in the very House in which they were afterwards read from generation to generation; and if not, they had probably been procured by the exchange of some work so written.

The uniformity which governed monastic usage was so strict that the practice of almost any large monastery may be taken as a type of what was done elsewhere. Hence, when we find a full record of the way in which books were used in the great Benedictine House at Durham, we may rest assured that we have got a good general idea of the whole subject. I will therefore begin by quoting a passage from the valuable work, *The Rite of Durham*, a description of the House drawn up after the Reformation by some one who had known it well in other days, promising only that it represents the final arrangements adopted by the Order, and takes no account of the steps that led to them.

"In the north syde of the Cloister, from the corner over against the Church dour to the corner over against the Dorter Dour, was all fynely glased from the hight to the sole within a little of the grownd into the Cloister garth. And in every wyndowe Pewes or Carrells, where every one of the old Monks had his carrell, severall by himselfe, that, when they had dynded, they dyd resorte to that place of Cloister, and there studyed upon their books, every one in his carrell, all the after nonne, unto evensong tyme. This was their exercise every daie ..."

It must not be supposed that an extensive collection of books was regarded as indispensable in all monastic establishments. In many Houses, partly from lack of funds, partly from an indisposition to study, the books were probably limited to those required for the

services and for the daily life of the brethern. In other places, on the contrary, where the fashion of book-collecting had been set from very early days, by some abbot or prior more learned or more active than his fellows, and where brethern in consequence had learnt to take a pride in their books, whether they read them or not, a large collection was got together at a date when even a royal library could be contained in a single chest of very moderate dimensions. For instance, when an inventory of the possessions of the Benedictine House of St. Riquier near Abbeville was made at the request of Louis le Debonnaire in 831 A. D., it was found that the library contained 250 volumes; and a note at the end of the catalogue informs us that if the different treatises had been entered separately, the number of entries would have exceeded five hundred, as many books were frequently bound in a single volume. The works in this library are roughly sorted under the headings Divinity, Grammar, History and Geography, Sermons and Service-books. A similar collection existed at St. Gall at the same period. In the next century we find nearly seven hundred manuscripts in a Benedictine monastery at Bobbio in north Italy; and nearly six hundred in a House belonging to the same order at Lorsch in Germany. At Durham, also a Benedictine House, a catalogue made early in the twelfth century contains three hundred and sixty-six titles; but, as at St. Riquier, the number of works probably exceeded six or seven hundred.

In the statutes of Merton College, Oxford, 1274, the teacher of grammar is to be supplied with a sufficient number of books out of the funds of the House, but no other mention of books occurs therein. The explanatory ordinances, however, given in 1276 by Robert Kilwardby (Archbishop of Canterbury 1273-79), direct that the books of the community are to be kept under three locks, and to be assigned by the warden and subwarden to the use of the Fellows under sufficient pledge. In the second statutes of University College (1292), it is provided, "that no Fellow shall alienate, sell, pawn, hire, lett, or grant, any House, Rent, Money, Book, or other Thing, without the Consent of all the Fellows"; and further, with special reference to the Library:

"Every Book of the House, now given, or hereafter to be given, shall have a high value set upon it when it is borrowed, in order that he that has it may be more fearful lest he lose it; and let it be lent by an Indenture, whereof one part is to be kept in the common Chest, and the other with him that has the Book: And let

no Book, belonging to the House, be lent out of the College, without a pawn better (than the Book), and this with the Consent of all the Fellows."

The statutes given in 1350 to Trinity Hall, Cambridge, by the Founder William Bateman (Bishop of Norwich 1344-56), contain rules which are more stringent than those already quoted, and were evidently written in contemplation of a more considerable collection of volumes.

"No book belonging to the aforesaid College may ever at anytime be sold, given away, exchanged, or alienated, under any excuse or pretext; nor may it be lent to anybody except a member of the College; nor may it be entrusted in quires, for the purpose of making a copy, to any member of the College, or to any stranger, either within the precincts of the Hall or beyond them; nor may it be carried by the Master, or any one else out of the Town of Cambridge, or out of the aforesaid Hall or Hostel, either whole or in quires, except to the Schools; provided always that no book pass the night out of College, unless it be necessary to bind it or to repair it; and when this happens, it is to be brought back to College as soon as possible after the completion of the binding or the repair."

The catalogue of the Library of Queens' College, dated 1472, enumerates one hundred and ninety-nine volumes; the second catalogue of the University Library, dated 1473, three hundred and thirty volumes; an early catalogue of the library of St. Catherine's Hall, one hundred and four volumes, of which eighty-five were given by the Founder; and a catalogue of the old library of King's College, dated 1453, one hundred and seventy-four volumes. In these catalogues the books are not directly classed under heads, but arranged roughly, according to subject, in their respective cases.

At Peterhouse in 1418 we find a somewhat larger collection, namely, three hundred and eighty volumes, divided among seventeen subjects. The general heading of the catalogue states that it contains "all the books belonging to the house of St. Peter in Cambridge, both those which are chained in the library, those which are divided among the Fellows, and those of which some are intended to be sold, while certain others are laid up in chests within the aforesaid house". This language shows that by the time the catalogue was made the collection had been divided into books for the use of the Fellows and books chained in the library; in other words, into a lending library and a library of reference. We are not told how this division had been made, or at what time; but it is evident that by 1418 it

had become permanent, and no longer depended on the tastes or studies of the Fellows. There was one set of books for them to select from, and another for them to refer to; but the two were quite distinct.

In the first place all medieval libraries were practically public. I do not mean that strangers were let in, but even in those of the monasteries, books were lent out on the deposit of a sufficient caution; and in Houses such as St. Victor and St. Germain des Pres, Paris, and at the Cathedral of Rouen, the collections were open to readers on certain days in the week. The Papal library and those at Urbino and Florence were also public; and even at Oxford and Cambridge there was practically no objection to lending books on good security. Secular corporations followed the example set by the Church, and lent their manuscripts, but only on security. A very remarkable example of this practice is afforded by the transaction between the Ecole de Medecine, Paris, and Louis XI. The king wanted their copy of a certain work on medicine; they declined to lend it unless he deposited 12 marks worth of plate and 100 gold crowns. This he agreed to do; the book was borrowed; duly copied, and January 24, 1472, restored to the Medical Faculty, who in their turn sent back the deposit to the king.

As a general rule, these libraries were divided into the lending library and the library of reference. These two parts of the collection have different names given to them. In the Vatican Library of Sixtus IV, we find the common or public library, and the reserved library. The same terms were used at Assisi. At Santa Maria Novella, Florence, there was the library, and the lesser library. In the University Library, Cambridge, there was "the public library" which contained the more ordinary books and was open to everybody, and "the private library" where the more valuable books were kept and to which only a few privileged persons were admitted. At Queens' College, in the same university, the books which might be lent were kept in a separate room from those which were chained to the shelves, and at Kings' College there was a public library and a lesser library. In short, in every large collection some such division was made, either structural, or by means of a separate catalogue*).

*) **Clark, John, W.** The care of books. Cambridge University Press, 1901, pp. 1-241. Extracts.

Manuscripts of Ancient Greece.

The vehicle by which Greek literature was preserved and transmitted from the earliest times until perhaps the second or third century after Christ was the papyrus roll. Alike in respect of form and of material, this was an import from Egypt, where it had been in use from a very remote time. A detailed account of the way in which the papyrus was treated in the Egyptian paper-factories is given by Pliny, but it is obscure in many points, and has given rise to a great deal of discussion. Without going into the minuter details of the process, it may be said here that the material used was the pith of the papyrus-reed, cut vertically into slices. In order to make a sheet of paper, these slices were laid some vertically and others transversely, pressed together, and dried in the sun; unevennesses were then smoothed or pressed away, and the sheets glued together into a roll. The writing was arranged in columns, in which the lines of writing ran parallel to the long side of the roll. Only one side of the paper was used in books meant for sale. Those written upon both sides were for private use, and were in the nature of rough copies. In order to read a roll, it, or rather the wooden cylinder on which it was wound, must be taken into the right hand. It was then opened with the left hand, and the reader began with the first column; as he proceeded further and further towards the right, he rolled up with the left hand the portion he had read.

The length of the early rolls was very considerable. We are told of some that were 160 feet long, and would contain the whole *Iliad* or *Odyssey*. Clearly this great bulk must have been a grave inconvenience, and we have evidence that the discomfort of it was felt. The well-known saying of Callimachus alludes to this matter and to nothing else. Callimachus was speaking, not as a poet or as a literary critic, but as a librarian of the great Alexandrian library, whose contents and catalogue he arranged. He must have had to deal with enormous masses of unwieldy rolls, and have suffered as much as we do now from a large folio book without an index. The theory of Birt is that we owe to Callimachus in a great measure the subdivision of ancient Greek works into *books*. It is at least clear that from a fairly early period authors were influenced by the size of the papyrus rolls ordinarily manufactured, and divided their works into such portions as could conveniently be contained in single rolls. The manufacture of papyrus had its headquarters at Alexandria, and all matters relating to its size, quality, and price

were carefully regulated in Roman times. In Pliny's day the standard quantity of a roll was twenty sheets. The best quality of paper (at first called *hieratica*, but subsequently *Augusta*) was about 9½ inches wide, though there was a kind of large paper as much as a cubit wide. The inferior sorts decreased in width, down to about five inches. It should be borne in mind that the slices of pith from the *centre* of the papyrus stalk were alike the largest in size and the best in quality. The papyrus trade was carried on by the Arabs after their invasion of Egypt in the seventh century A. D., and ceased together, it is believed, about the year 950.

Side by side with papyrus, another material was in use for several centuries, which was destined entirely to supersede its older rival. This was parchment or vellum. Rolls of skin were used by the Egyptians in quite early times, though rarely in comparsion with papyrus: and the Jews probably employed skins throughout their history for the reception of their sacred books, as indeed they do at the present day. Herodotus, too, tells us that the Ionian Greeks wrote upon skins, and Diodorus Siculus speaks of them as the material on which the ancient records of Persia were inscribed. The place which has given its name to parchment — Pergamum — was in later classical times the centre of the parchment trade. Pliny quotes from Varro a story that Eumenes II, king of Pergamum (197-158 B. C.), was forced to use parchment for his library because the Ptolemies, jealous for their own library at Alexandria, forbade papyrus to be exported. The story is not generally believed, but it contains the truth that Pergamum was particularly important in connection with the development of the use of parchment. From Pergamum the article must soon have made its way in some quantity to Rome; and once at Rome, its diffusion over the whole civilized world was assured. Its superiority to papyrus consisted, firstly in its greater durability, and secondly in the fact that it was procurable in any country, while the papyrus-reed could only be cultivated in one very limited area. For all that, it did not make its way to the front at once. We have no clear evidence as to the comparative value of the two materials. At least we know what the determining influence was which eventually gave to parchment its well-deserved supremacy. It was that of the Christian Church, which, influenced no doubt by the practice of the Jewish Church, chose parchment to write their sacred books upon. As was natural, the Christians soon extended its use, first to the reception of their own theological literature, and then to that of literature in general.

The form of the earliest parchment MSS. was naturally that of the roll. We have now to consider the development of the book-form; an improvement almost comparable in importance to the invention of printing. It is agreed that the book was evolved out of the *tablet*. Single wooden tablets were used in Egypt and in Greece as early as the fifth century B. C., for such purposes as the keeping of accounts, and the writing of models for school boys to copy. These tablets were of plain wood, or had a thin coat of glaze. But the more important and more usual form which they took in the Greek and Roman world was that of the set of small tablets which could be carried on the person, and were used for notes and correspondence, or for wills and other legal documents. These were usually of box-wood, covered with wax, on which men wrote with a metal stylus; they were hinged together with rings.

Take such a set of tablets, and for the inner leaves of wood substitute leaves of papyrus or of parchment, and you have at once something very like the modern book. Let the further step be taken of using a book so formed for the purpose of transcribing some short literary work, and the thing is done. The size and bulk of your book can be increased at will. How much more convenient for continuous reading, and more especially for reference, a book is than a roll we do not need to be told; but in the ancient world natural conservatism and the traditions of the book-trade were not overcome at once. Towards the end of the third century A. D., the supremacy of the book-form was probably assured if not attained. There were books before that date, and rolls continued to be used for literary works long afterwards: but the former were on the increase and the latter falling off in numbers.

The earliest extant specimens of books must be looked for among recent Egyptian discoveries. The third century papyrus-leaf, containing the "Sayings of the Lord", is from a book, not a roll: while a parchment leaf with a fragment of the *Melanippe* of Euripides is of the fourth century or earlier. Of complete books it would not be easy to find earlier examples than the two fourth-century Bibles, known as the *Vaticanus* and *Sinaiticus*.

Alike in books and in rolls the writing was arranged in columns. The reader of a roll would probably find it convenient to have from two to four columns exposed before him at once. Some of our earliest books bear traces of their descent from the roll in the number of columns which each of their pages shows. Thus the two

famous Bibles mentioned above have respectively four and three columns on a page. The normal number, however, in MSS. where the lines are of uniform length, is two. Where there are sense-lines — divided, as the phrase goes, *per cola et commata*, as in the *Codex Bezae* — we find but one column on the page. The columns were in Greek called by a word which originally meant the gangways between the banks of rowers in a trireme. This was transferred to the spaces between the columns of writing, then to the columns themselves, and finally, when the book-form had ousted the roll, to the pages of the book itself. Greek papyrus books have not survived outside Egypt save in scanty fragments.

The arrangement of the leaves of ancient MSS. is often important. The construction of the earliest books was essentially the same as that of the most modern ones. They were composed of a series of quires fastened together, and each quire consisted of a number of sheets of vellum or papyrus, folded down the middle and placed one inside another. The most usual number of sheets composing a quire was four, which made eight leaves or sixteen pages, and was called a *quaternus* (*cahier*, quire). We also find quires of six, ten, and twelve leaves. The number of leaves of which a quire consists is ascertained by looking between each pair of leaves until a string is found passing down the middle of the crease between them. The sheet in which this string is must be the innermost sheet of the quire, and there ought to be an equal number of leaves on each side of it. If there is not, the reason must be either that a leaf in the quire was cancelled and cut out by the original scribe, or that it has been subsequently lost. We can best find out which is the true reason by noticing whether the text of the MS. is continuous throughout the quire. If a gap in the sense appears between one leaf and the next, we shall be sure that we are dealing with a case of mutilation.

We are familiar with the fact that Egyptian works, notably the *Book of the Dead*, were copiously illustrated. But we have no evidence that the Greeks adopted this fashion in early times. The first Greek MS. which is illustrated in any way is a papyrus of astronomical technique of Eudoxus, now at Paris, dating from 165 B. C. It contains some rude diagrams. Our earliest specimen of real pictures in Greek books is afforded by the illustrated fragments of the *Iliad* in the Ambrosian Library at Milan. These are 58 pictures cut from a complete MS. of the *Iliad*. They are themselves as old as the fourth century, and go back to yet earlier

models. The Vienna Dioscorides of the same century preserves a remarkable series of pictures of plants and other illustrations.

As to the writing materials ordinarily used by scribes, something must be said. A number of epigrams in the Palatine Anthology, mostly late, but all variations on an ancient theme, give lists of the implements in question. They are as follows:

(1) A disc of lead with which lines were ruled; (2) the ruler which served to keep the lines and columns straight; (3) the sponge to obliterate mistakes; (4) the piece of pumice to smooth the nib of the pen, and to rub away roughnesses in the paper; (5) the penknife to sharpen the pen; (6) the ink, either that of the cuttlefish, or else a mixture made from oak-galls or the like; (7) the inkstand; (8) the pen, which, as the name shows, was at first a reed, later on exchanged for a bird's quill. We first hear of the latter in the sixth century, but no doubt it was in use before that. The metal stylus was only employed for writing on wax tablets. It is perhaps worth while to add the Greek term for the projecting ends — often gilt and decorated — of the cylinder on which a papyrus volume was rolled.

As to the methods of storing books, we are not perhaps so well informed as we are about the books themselves. It is clear alike from literature and from monuments that the small collection of an ordinary individual would be contained in a series of circular boxes in which the rolls stood vertically. Reference to them was rendered easy by the label of coloured parchment or other material, attached to the projecting ends of each, on which the title was written. Larger libraries, such as that found in 1752 at Herculaneum, required to be accommodated in presses, usually shallow cupboards arranged around the walls of a room. In these the rolls would lie horizontally on the shelves. Each press or series of presses would have to be provided with a catalogue. Callimachus is known to have compiled something similar for the Library of Alexandria; the work was clearly in the nature of a catalogue; and the most probable interpretation is that the catalogue there and elsewhere took the form of a number of wooden tablets, one for each press, inscribed with the titles of the books contained in that press. The Greek names for the book-boxes or book-cupboards are not of very common occurrence ... The things themselves, however, took firm root in Rome, and survived into later mediaeval times throughout the West. Of the book-trade in Greece, again, and of the methods which an author employed to get his works published, we really

know nothing. Judging from what went on at Rome, we should conjecture that the trade was carried on by men who employed slaves to write from dictation, and that in this way copies of books were quickly multiplied. From a passage in Xenophon's *Anabasis* we gather that there was an export trade in books from Athens, and that they were packed in wooden boxes for the purpose*).

Manuscripts and libraries of Rome.

The form in which literature was preserved and circulated during the earlier period of the history of Rome did not differ from that which prevailed in the Greek world. In this department of life, as in others, Greek influence was paramount. The predominant *form* of the book was the roll; as to the *material*, it was long remembered by the Romans that in ancient times the bark of trees had been employed for writing upon, and had given its name, *liber*, to books in general. Linen was also in use at an early period; the Sibylline books were imagined to have been *libri lintei* by some; by others, palm-leaves were thought to have been their material. These uncertain traditions are of little importance. We are primarily interested in the usages of a later time; and may confine our thoughts to the two materials of papyrus and parchment.

The manufacture of *papyrus* was confined to Egypt. It was always an expensive commodity, both because it was produced in a very limited area, and because the process of making it was long, and entailed much skilled manual labor. It is most probable that the establishment of the great Alexandrian library led to improvements in the manufacture, and stimulated production; and we are told definitely by Pliny that further improvements were made in the first days of the Empire. In addition to its costliness, it had other disadvantages as a vehicle for the preservation of literature, in that it was brittle, and very liable to crack and split. Great care was required in the handling of it. On the other hand, it was eminently light and portable, and its brown-yellow color was restful and pleasing to the eyes of dwellers in a sunny climate. Parchment, as a heavier and cheaper material, was clearly considered inferior to papyrus for a long period. A series of epigrams by Martial, intended

*) Whibley, Leonard. A companion to Greek Studies. pp. 512-16. Cambridge University Press, 1905.

to accompany presents sent at the season of the *Saturnalia*, furnishes evidence of this fact. The epigrams are in pairs: the first of each pair describes an expensive present; the second, one of a cheaper sort. Those which relate to gifts of books place works written *in pugillaribus membranis*, or *in membranis*, in the second category.

We must think then of the well-to-do Roman as reading books written on rolls of papyrus. The text was inscribed in a series of columns, running of course, from left to right. The reader held the roll in both hands, exposing perhaps two or three columns at a time. As he proceeded, he rolled up the finished portion with his left hand. Thus, when he had gone through the book, the beginning of the text was innermost, and the end outside; and, for the convenience of the next person who wished to read it, the roll had to be re-rolled from right to left, in order to bring the beginning to the outside once more. It has been pointed out that, whenever a person is represented in ancient scriptures or paintings as holding a roll in his left hand, we must understand that he has completed the reading of the book and may be about to ponder over it or to address an audience upon the subject of it; whereas, if the roll be in his right hand, we may infer that he is about to begin reading it. From what has been said it will be evident that the form of the roll must have caused great inconvenience to anyone who desired to refer to particular passages, or to collect information from a number of different works.

Accordingly, those who were engaged in anything like literary research must have made copious use of tablets, on which they transcribed from the rolls the extracts which interested them. These tablets, which at first were commonly leaves of wood coated with wax, are, as is easily seen, the germ of the book as we now have it; the *codex* as opposed to the *volumen*. Already, as we have seen in the time of Martial, late in the first Christian century, there were *pugillares*, in which the wooden leaves had been replaced by parchment, upon which literary texts were written. An inscription found at Priene, belonging to the beginning of the first century before Christ, makes mention apparently of *codices* both of papyrus and of parchment, in which the public acts of the city had been transcribed; and, at Rome in 52 B.C., the *codices librariarum* formed part of the pyre which an angry mob kindled under the corpse of Clodius. These *codices* were probably transcripts of official documents, like those of Priene. But, though used for the preservation of such documents, for legal text-books, and for books to be read

in schools or on journeys, the *codex* did not become fashionable until perhaps the fourth century A.D. It was the growth of the Christian community which brought it into prominence; and, with the *codex*, the material best adapted to the form, namely parchment, also came into favour. There were *codices* of papyrus; but the brittleness of that fabric, apt as it was to crack when folded, debarred it from being largely used in this form.

Reverting to the roll, we may note some points connected with its use, and the methods adopted for its preservation. We often find mention of the *umbilicus*, a stick with ornamented ends, round which the volume was rolled. It has been usually assumed that this stick was permanently affixed to the end of the roll; recently, however, Birt has thrown doubt upon this, and, as it seems, with good reason. According to him, the *umbilicus* was *not* attached to the roll. It could be withdrawn or inserted at pleasure. No undoubted example of an *umbilicus* exists; but it seems likely that there are remains of them in some of the carbonized rolls found at Herculaneum. Normally, the roll had nothing corresponding to a binding. Sometimes it was tied up by thongs attached to the end. Catullus (according to the manuscript text) mentions *lora rubra membranae*: sometimes a cylindrical case (of skin) was used, to contain a single roll. This, which was called a *paenula*, was probably, like the gilded *umbilicus*, part of the outfit of a costly presentation-copy, and was not in common use.

Small sets of rolls were kept, standing vertically, in boxes commonly of a circular form, called *capsae* or *scrinia*. For larger collections bookcases were provided. In those the rolls were laid in pigeon-holes. The upper end of the roll was exposed, and to this a title was attached. It was written on a slip of parchment, papyrus, wood, or other material, projecting or hanging down the roll, so as to be easily legible by the searcher after a particular book. The aspect of such a range of pigeon-holes, with a student or library-keeper engaged in taking out one of the rolls which lie therein, with the titles attached, is well given in bas relief discovered in the 17th century at Neumagen near Treves and now unhappily lost. Book-cases protected by doors were known by the name *armarium*, a word applicable to a cupboard used for any purpose.

Of writing-materials there is not much to be said. The pointed *stilus* of metal was used for writing on wax-tablets; for writing with ink the *calamus*, or reed-pen, was universally employed. A Roman bas-relief shows us the scribe's outfit — a case containing

a bundle of four or five pens, an ink-bottle attached to it, a pair of tablets and a *stilus*. A principle ingredient of the ink in ordinary use appears to have been soot.

As to the production and sale of books in Roman times, a good deal can be gathered from literary allusions. The book-trade was a recognised one. The procedure of publishing seems to have been as follows, at the end of the first century A. D. The author took his own corrected copy (which he had very likely introduced to the world by means of a public recitation) to the bookseller of his choice: the latter had what we should call an edition produced in his establishment, by his staff of copyists. Of the number of copies which constituted an edition we know nothing: probably it was not large. There is little, if any, evidence for the theory that the scribes wrote from dictation: it may well have been the case that the copy was cut up and distributed among a number of scribes. When the edition was ready, the names of the book and author were advertised upon the door-posts of the bookseller's establishment. It is by no means clear that the author derived any pecuniary profits from the transaction. Nor was the copyright of a literary work the property of its author or publisher. There was nothing to prevent copies being made by private persons or by other tradesmen. It is difficult to form any comprehensive idea of the prices of books in Rome. One book of Martial's epigrams (the first) was obtainable from the bookseller Atrectus for five *denarii*; the thirteenth was sold by Trypho for one *denarius*. But the first-named appears to have been 'handsomely got up', while the latter may have been a very plain and humble production.

The public libraries of Rome were a most important feature in its literary life. The first great accumulations of books in the city were the result of conquest. Aemilius Paullus, Sulla, Lucullus, successively brought home libraries of Greek books which they had acquired as spoil. Lucullus threw open his collection to the learned of his day; but the foundation of the first actual public library in Rome was due to Asinius Pollio. Julius Caesar had contemplated a similar institution, the formation of which was entrusted to Varro. The project was frustrated by Caesar's death. Augustus founded two public libraries, one in the *Porticus Octaviae*, the other in connection with the temple of the Palatine Apollo. In these the Greek and Latin Libraries were kept in separate divisions of the building. The same arrangement prevailed in the magnificent *Bibliotheca Ulpia* founded by Trajan. Here the great Column

sculptured with the portrayal of Trajan's conquests stood in the centre of a small court between the two sections of the library. At the beginning of the fourth century A.D. there are said to have been as many as twenty-nine public libraries in Rome; and there is evidence that they existed in provincial towns as well.

In conclusion, something may be said as to the illustration of ancient books by means of pictures. A few allusions to the practice are made in literature. Varro collected a large number of portraits of eminent persons, arranged them in groups of seven, and published them with short explanatory text under the title *Hebdomades*. Martial describes a copy of Virgil as bearing a portrait of the poet at the beginning. But, though not much light on the matter can be derived from ancient writers, it seems probable that rolls containing pictures, and perhaps only pictures, without accompanying text, were not uncommon. Fragments of Egyptian rolls illustrating fables have been found in recent years, and, though we do not possess a picture-roll earlier than the ninth century in date, it has been pointed out that the pictures in the Vienna *Genesis* of the sixth century have the appearance of being taken from a roll and copied into a *codex*. Birt dwells on the fact that the arrangement of the sculptures on the Columns of Trajan and of Antoninus, in a spiral band, may be regarded as an embodiment of a picture-roll in stone.

Among the illustrated *codices* which have survived, a few may be named as containing pictures that recall the works of the classical period. The Vatican Virgil, the Milan Iliad, the Vienna Dioscorides, a group of early copies of Terence, a Nicander at Paris, the Wolfenbüttel copy of the works of the Roman surveyors (called the *Codex Arcerianus*), are the most remarkable among secular books, while of Christian productions the foremost are two copies of *Genesis*, one at Vienna, the other (fragmentary) in the Cottonian collection at the British Museum; a Greek Psalter at Paris; a roll illustrating the *Book of Joshua* at the Vatican; two Greek Gospel books (one at Rossano in Calabria, the other in Paris); and a number of copies of the *Psychomachia* of Prudentius, a poem describing the conflict of the Virtues with the Vices*).

*) **Sandys, John Edwin.** Books and writing. From a Companion to Latin Studies, pp. 237-41. Cambridge University Press, 1910.

Libraries of Greece and Rome.

Since my particular study during the last few years has been along the line of education in Greco-Roman Egypt, I thought that I might bring to you to-day some information, a little of which is comparatively new, on the libraries of the Greco-Roman world.

A little consideration of the high intellectual development of the classical world would lead one *a priori* to assume that the people of that day had libraries and in much larger numbers than at any period in history other than our own. And this assumption is borne out by the data which we have on libraries in antiquity. It is hardly proper to go back into Egyptian history or into the records of the civilization of the Tigris-Euphrates valley in our search for libraries. Of course every age in which writing has been used necessarily had collections of books; and this is especially the case where there has been any literature such as we know was found in these civilizations. But the collections of papyrus rolls from Egypt and of clay tablets from Babylonia can scarcely be considered libraries in the modern sense of collections for the use of the public. So far as we can judge they were the private collections of the monarchs of those kingdoms.

But when we come to the Greco-Roman civilization we enter the period when we may speak of libraries and library service in the modern sense. The great number of libraries which are actually known to us — and of course we must bear in mind that we have information on but a small per cent of the collections, — makes us practically certain that they were in every sense of the word actual public libraries. It may be well to mention the libraries known to us at this time, both from literature and from excavations. The first known is that of Alexandria under the dynasty of the Ptolemies, founded in the third century B. C., which we are informed by one writer contained 700,000 volumes, according to another writer only 400,000 volumes. In judging the extent of the collection by such numbers, it should be borne in mind that a volume contained but a single book of an author; so, for instance, the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* of Homer would form twenty-four volumes, Virgil's *Aeneid* twelve volumes. A smaller library in Alexandria contained over 40,000 volumes. A century later the library of the kings of Pergamum could boast of 200,000 volumes. These are the only libraries which furnish us any data on the number of volumes. But we know that there existed large collections in other cities of the Greek world at this period, notably that of the Seleucid kings of Antioch.

Our fuller information on the number of libraries comes from the Roman period. In the fourth century of our era the city of Rome alone had 28 or 29 libraries, and in Italy and the provinces we have records of 24 others. In fact one modern authority goes so far as to say that a library may be presupposed in every important city of the Roman empire. This statement is probably too general, but it is an interesting fact that the only ancient writer on architecture in general preserved to us, Vitruvius, gives special directions for the construction of libraries, specifying among other details that they should face the east so as to receive the warmth of the morning sun. Certainly libraries were a common feature of the ancient city, if it was felt advisable to describe their mode of construction. A number of other considerations warrant the conclusion that libraries were on the whole to be found in *most* of the important cities of the Roman empire.

We have the statement for but one library that it was open to the use of the public; but we are safe in assuming general service for most of them. They were as a rule presented to the city by some local Carnegie whose beneficence was inscribed on some stone of the building. Not infrequently a sum of money was laid aside for upkeep. We know that the younger Pliny gave to his native city of Comun, the modern Como on the lake of that name, a very small city, a building that cost \$40,000 and in addition endowed it with a sum that yielded \$4,000 annually. This is the most expensive building for which we have information, but of course we must assume that the larger libraries, such as those of Rome and Alexandria, cost much more.

As regards the management of the libraries we have the names of many of the head librarians of the larger libraries in the eastern part of the empire, but that is all. Some detailed information is available from Rome. In that city there was a *procurator bibliothecarum* who received a salary of \$3,000, which by the way was the smallest salary drawn by any official of his rank. His duty was the general oversight of all the libraries in the city. Each library had a librarian who went under several titles. Mention is also made of "slaves" of the library — in all probability assigned to the task of making copies of the books. One woman is named as a librarian, in a way that leads to the conclusion that at that time the women had not yet secured a monopoly of that position. Another officer connected with the libraries of Rome was a *medicus*. I leave to the judgment of those better acquainted with the trials

of library service what task around a library would be assigned a physician.

With regard to furnishings and arrangement we know that the libraries were catalogued. The books were frequently arranged by subjects, and in alcoves containing the works of one author or a few authors. Their pictures or names were hung on medallions before the alcove. A regular embellishment of the building was a statue of Minerva, the patron goddess of wisdom.

Some four or five libraries have been excavated fully and on the whole they follow the same general ground plan: square buildings with a colonnaded entrance; within, a large open space presumably for readers, and alcoves around the walls. Not enough of the buildings have been preserved to allow us to know how well they were lighted. The library of Ephesus had a very unusual architectural feature which I hazard is almost unique in the history of libraries. The building had a double wall about it on three sides, so as to leave a large air space, which would keep out dampness and in addition make the building warmer in winter and colder in summer.

Such in briefest outline is our knowledge of libraries in the Greco-Roman world. We must use our imagination to fill in the outlines of the picture. We have every right to assume that the ancient world was an age of nearly as much reading as our own, among the upper circles at least. The same Vitruvius mentioned above makes special mention in his plans for private dwellings of the location and arrangement of the room for the library. That the libraries were for the public and were used by it, is rendered almost certain by the fact that in Rome at least they were connected with public buildings, such as temples, fora, and especially baths, the very places most frequented by the general public. In connection with Egypt in the Greco-Roman period, I have proven, I feel, in a book soon to be published that the public schools regularly contained libraries of the classic authors.

The presence of libraries in a civilization of such preeminence as the Greco-Roman adds further evidence to their value as an integral part of the culture of any community. The ancients needed them for their cultural value. We moderns have reason for their development and the added reason that our form of government can exist only if we have an intelligent, reading citizenship *).

*) **Oldfather, C. H.** Libraries in the Greco-Roman world. Library occurrence, 7: 4-5, 1924-26.

The library; past and future.

The first founders of public libraries having been Italians, it will perhaps be neither strange nor unfitting that an Italian, the custodian of one of the most ancient and valued book collections in the world, should speak to you of their past. He may, however, appear presumptuous in that he will speak to you also of their future, thus posing as an exponent of those anticipations which are now fashionable. It is in truth a curious desire that urges us and tempts us to guess at the future, to discover the signs of what it will bring us, in certain characteristics of the present moment. It answers to a want in human nature which knows not how to resign itself to the limitations of the present but would look beyond it into time and space.

Progress has been rightly compared to a continual ascent. Modern man sees before him ever vaster horizons; the eye of science discovers in the infinitely distant and in the infinitely small ever new worlds whether of suns or of bacteria. In the same way do conceptions and ideas ever widen and tend to a more comprehensive generalization. All the march of civilization, both material and moral, consists in rising from a single primordial idea to another more complex and so on to the higher scientific abstractions. Woe to science if it stops short in the course of this evolution; its reputation would be injured beyond repair. In material things, the fate of certain words shows us the great advance that has been made; the words are the same but the things they represent are very different. We still give the name *casa* (casa, that is, hut) to our splendid dwellings, which have here among you reached their highest point of development in your skyscrapers; we still give to the great transatlantic steamers, floating cities, the name *boats*, which was once applied to the first rude canoes of the troglodites. The first function of the *casa* and of the *boat* still remains, but how differently are the details carried out. So also, the *book*, the *liber*, whose etymology is preserved in the word *library*, was anciently the inner part of the tree (*liber*) on which men used to write, and which is now unfortunately again used in the making of paper, no longer obtained from rags but from wood pulp. The libraries of Assyria and Egypt, those for instance of Assur-Bani-Pal and of Rameses I., consisted of clay tablets, of inscribed stones, or of papyrus rolls; the libraries of Greece, those of the Ptolemies, and of the kings of Pergamus, the libraries of Rome, first opened to

public use by the efforts of Asinius Pollio; the Byzantine libraries, which arose within Christian Churches, or in monasteries; and lastly, the rich and splendid collections made at great expense by the patrons, by the builders, of the culture of the Renaissance — all these, compared with the modern libraries, of which the most perfect specimens may be found in this land, are like an ancient trireme beside a twin-screw steamer. And the essential difference between the ancient and the modern library, between the conception of a library as it existed up to the times of Frederic, Duke of Urbino, and of Lorenzo il Magnifico, and that existing in the minds of Thomas Bodley, or Antonio Magliabecchi, is to be found in the different objects represented by the same word, *liber*.

A study of the fate of this word would lead us step by step through the varying forms of the library, from those containing clay tablets, from those filled with rolls covered with cuneiform characters, to the codices brilliant with the art of Oderisi da Gubbio, splendid with gold and miniatures to the first block books, to the printed books of Fust and Schoeffer, and of Aldo Manuzio, of William Caxton, and of Christopher Plantin.

The invention of printing caused a great revolution in the world of books. The new art was, as we well know, received at first with scorn and indifference. The incunabula were but rough, vulgar things as compared with the beautiful manuscripts clearly written on carefully prepared parchment, and glittering with brilliant colors. They were fit at most to be used by the masses — by women, by children, to be sold at fairs, to be put into the hands of cheap-jacks and charlatans; but they were quite unfitted for the valuable collections guarded with so much care in perfumed cases carved from precious woods, in sculptured cabinets, on reading desks covered with damask or with the softest of leathers, made from the skins of sucking animals. We can easily understand that fastidious art patrons such as the Duke of Urbino should scorn this new form of book, and should proclaim it unworthy of a place in a respectable library. But this tempest of scorn gradually subsided before the advantages which the new invention offered and before the marvellous progress it made. It sought, moreover, the favor of the miniaturists by leaving in the margins of the new codices, sufficient space for ornamentations and for initials of burnished gold; it sought the favor and the help of the learned Humanists by employing them to revise and correct the texts; it won the favor of the studious and of clerks, who have at all times been poor,

by spreading abroad the texts of the classics, by offering for a few half-pence that which at first could be obtained only with gold or silver florins, by imparting to all that which had been the privilege of the few. And we must not forget the help given to typography by the invention of the minor arts, calligraphy and xylography, which added new value to the pages of the no longer despised book; so that printed codices might stand side by side with the manuscript codices.

The word, the sign of the thought, first took on visible form with the invention of the alphabet. But other ways of revealing thought were to be discovered in the future. No one in the ancient world, no one before the very culminating point of the Renaissance, could have supposed it possible that a library might contain anything but manuscripts; just as we, today, are incapable of imagining a library containing anything but books. We have seen that the conception of the book underwent expansion, when printed books were added to those written by hand; and in the same way, the library underwent expansion, gradually rising, between the fifteenth and twentieth centuries, from a simple collection of codices, to the vast and wonderful proportions it has at present reached, assuming the duty of receiving within itself any kind of graphic representation of human thought, from clay tablets and inscribed stones, and papyrus rolls, to phototypes and monotype or linotype products, from books for the blind written in the Braille alphabet, to the new manuscripts of the typewriter.

From this brief compendium of bibliographical history one essential feature emerges. As though directed by an unswerving law, by the law of reproduction, human thought feels the necessity of expanding, and of multiplying and perpetuating itself; and it is ever searching for new means of carrying out this intent. Thus the copyist or the scribe is replaced by the compositor, the miniaturist by the engraver, the draughtsman by the lithographer, the painter by the color-printer, the engraver by the photographer and zincographer; thus the machine replaces the hand of man — the machine which is only concerned with working quickly, with producing as many copies as possible with diminished effort, with snatching her secrets from Mother Nature herself. We have replaced the *note tironiane* of the Roman scribes by the typewriter, the wax tablets by the pages of the stenographer; for drawing and painting we have substituted photography and three-color printing; wireless telegraphy has taken the place of messages sent by post-horse.

An Italian Jesuit, Saverio Bettinelli, undertook toward the middle of the eighteenth century to give laws to Italian writers. He produced certain letters which he assumed Virgil to have written from the Elysian fields to the Arcadia at Rome. In two of these twelve tablets which he put forth under the names of Homer, Pindar, Anachreon, Virgil, Horace, Propertius, Dante, Petrarch, and Ariosto, in the poetical meetings held in Elysium, he laid down as a rule: "Let there be written in large letters on the doors of all public libraries: 'You will be ignorant of almost everything which is within these doors, or you will live three centuries to read half of it;' and a little further on: 'Let a new city be made whose streets, squares and houses shall contain only books. Let the man who wishes to study go and live there for as long as may be needful; otherwise printed matter will soon leave no place for the goods, for the food, of the inhabitants of our towns'."

Now that the conception of books and library has been so enormously expanded, now that the library has become the city of paper, however printed, and of any other material fitted to receive the graphic representation of human thought, it will become more and more necessary to classify the enormous amount of material, to separate it into various categories. The laws of demography, whatever they may be, must be extended also to books: the dead must be divided from the living, the sick from the sound, the bad from the good, the rich from the poor; and cemeteries must be prepared for all those stereotyped editions of school books, of catechisms, of railway time-tables, for all that endless luggage of printed paper that has only the form of a book and has nothing to do with thought. Sanatoria must be provided for books condemned to uselessness because already infected with error or already eaten away with old age, and the most conspicuous places must be set apart for books worthy to be preserved from oblivion and from the ravages of time, either on account of the importance of their contents or of the beauty of their appearance. In this great republic of books the princes will stand high above the countless mass, and an aristocracy of the best will be formed which will be the true library within the library.

But even this will not have the exclusive character of the ancient library. It will receive divers and strange forms of books; next to the papyrus of Oxyrinchos, with an unknown fragment of Sappho, may be placed a parchment illuminated by Nestore Leoni or by Attilio Formilli; a graphophone disc containing Theodore

Roosevelt's latest speech or a scene from *Othello* given by Tommaso Salvini, the heliotype reproduction of the Medicean Virgil, or some phrases written on palm leaves by the last survivor of a band of cannibals. The great abundance of modern production will render even more rare and more valuable ancient examples of the book; just as the progress of industrialism has enhanced the value of work produced by the hand of man*).

European libraries.

These impressions of European libraries are confined (1) to such university centers as Leipzig and Jena in Germany, and Paris and Grenoble in France, and (2) to a personal study made of a dozen leading educational libraries in Europe — at London, Brussels, Paris, Zurich, Leipzig, Berlin etc.

European libraries are much less democratic than similar American institutions. They are patronized much more generally by special students than by the masses, as with us. Little or nothing, in fact, is done to bring the libraries to the attention of the common people. Closed shelves is the rule, and the books are generally badly catalogued, when catalogued at all. The libraries are opened for a few hours only each day, and vacations are numerous and long. In Leipzig, a city of more than half a million inhabitants, the municipal library, with more than 100,000 volumes, is open on Monday and Wednesday, from 11 to 1; and on Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday, from 3 to 5. At Grenoble, France, where the library of nearly 200,000 volumes is shared by the municipality and the small local university, it is open to the public on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Sunday from 11 to 4, but is closed during the long summer vacation — a period of about four months.

With scarcely an exception the European libraries, with which I am familiar, are very slow in the purchase of modern books. On the other hand, they cater more generally to the needs of literary workers and scientific students than is the case in America; and they are, in consequence, less often warehouse of transient and inconsequential fiction than with us. They have special features, too, not generally found in American libraries. Pamphlets are more

*) **Biagi, Guido.** The library: its past and future. Library journal, 29: C 8-14, 1904. Dr. Biagi was librarian of the Laurenziana Library of Florence.

generally collected and preserved; more attention is given to the collection of biographical sketches, autographs, and portraits, and special libraries are much more numerous than in the United States.

Take the matter of education as a point in illustration. Germany alone has something like 40 special educational libraries. The Comenius Stiftung at Leipzig has more than 70,000 books on education. There are two special libraries for teachers at Berlin — the German Educational Library with 15,000 volumes and the City Educational Library with 12,000 volumes. Moreover, these special educational libraries are in themselves specialized. The Comenius Stiftung at Leipzig is strong in the great educational movement which clusters about the educational realism of the sixteenth century, with such leaders as Comenius, Ratke, Bacon, Vivis, and Campanella. The German Educational Library at Berlin is strong on matters pertaining to Pestalozzi and the educational renaissance of the nineteenth century.

Paris has probably the best selected educational library in the world. It contains 72,000 volumes and occupies 16 rooms in a 30-room building devoted to the national educational museum and library. There are similar educational libraries at Brussels, Zurich, Stockholm, St. Petersburg, Amsterdam, Copenhagen, Vienna, Breslau, Budapest, Prague, and two at London.

The university libraries in Europe are generally admirably equipped with books, although often badly administered. The library of the University of Leipzig is housed in a handsome building and contains more than 350,000 volumes and 4,000 manuscripts. It is open from 9 to 1 and from 3 to 5. There are also special libraries connected with each department of the University, those of psychology and geography being especially fine at Leipzig. These special departmental libraries have open shelves, and they are open at all hours to graduate students. The library of Ste. Geneviève is to all purposes and intents the university library at Paris. It will be recalled that the Boston Public Library is a replica of Ste. Geneviève. It is open from 10 to 3 and from 6 to 10 and contains something more than 200,000 volumes. Paris, of course, has the splendid National Library, with more than 3,000,000 volumes, but it is not much used by the university students. The hours are short (9 to 4), and the books are imperfectly catalogued. There is a catalogue of the accessions since 1884 only, although a general catalogue is being made. So far, I believe, the general catalogue has been carried to the word Chailly, with 25 volumes; and it is

estimated that fully a quarter of a century will be required for its completion *).

Italian libraries.

The current year marks also an anniversary in the history of Italian libraries, for it was in 1876, with opening of the Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale in Rome, that the development of libraries was made a function of the newly united state of Italy.

But the help which Italy has been able to give since that time has not shown up so markedly as in the case in other European countries which have spent centuries in the development of their national libraries. For Italy, which completed its political unification not much more than fifty years ago with the fusion of many small states — in each one of which there already existed a metropolitan library — had to follow other methods.

While making sure that all these libraries had the necessary means for conservation, activity, and development, as indicated by local requirements, the government took particular care to give the leading position to the libraries of its most central and intellectual cities, Rome and Florence. The two libraries here were not only designed as depositories for all Italian books, but were to collect the best of the foreign productions ...

The annual budget during the past forty-nine years had never been adequately raised, and even during the last ten years, owing to the financial inflation, might have been considered as reduced. But it has just been doubled, so that, beginning with the present year, Italy will spend for her libraries 9,650,000 lire annually.

What has been said so far refers only to the government libraries, thirty-two in all ...

In addition, the larger cities and the most prominent organizations and cultural institutions (schools of commerce, of fine arts, industrial schools, nautical schools, museums, art galleries, universities, colleges, etc.) have rich libraries of their own that compete with those of the government in accommodating the students of various subjects. It would take too much space to give here the full list.

*) **Monroe, Will S.** Impressions of some European libraries. *Library journal*, 32 : 161-62, 1907.

Mr. **Monroe** is a well-known educator and author.

We can, however, mention some noted and important libraries, such as the Ambrosiana in Milan, the Civica in Trieste, the Comunale in Bologna, Fermo, Palermo and Verona; and in Rome the Corsiniana, in the R. Accademia dei Lincei, those of the Risorgimento, in the Vittoriale, the R. Istituto di Archeologia e Storia dell' Arte — founded only lately, the Reale Società Geografica, the R. Accademia Musicale di S. Cecilia, the Istituto Coloniale Italiano, and the International Institute of Agriculture.

In addition, there are in the Capital the sumptuous libraries of the Senate and of the Chamber of Deputies and those of the different Ministries, among which special mention may be made of those of the Foreign Office, of the Colonies, of the War and Justice Departments.

There is also throughout Italy a large number of special libraries: religious, current fiction, scientific and technological, moral, medical, military, legal, etc., attached to seminaries, boarding schools, clubs, industrial plants, prisons, hospitals, army and navy circles, courts, etc.

Circulating libraries, which, in their organization and purpose may be compared with the branches of the American public libraries, help to spread as much as possible the habit of reading outside of the scholastic and professional circles. These libraries, which total more than two thousand (in Milan alone there are over sixty-eight), are united in a federation (Federazione Italiana Biblioteche Circotanti) that was created in Milan in 1904. This organization counts among its founders the present Pope, Pius XI, then Prefetto of the Ambrosiana in Milan. The Federation aims to give a special character to these libraries, mostly from a moral point of view, to help finance the more needy collections, to assist in the choice of books, to help in the establishment of relations with bookdealers and editors, to promote the editing of good books for the people, and to make up lists of the best foreign and domestic publications.

Finally there are in Italy many public and private libraries, rich in very rare collections, such as the Trivulziana in Milan which owns all of the fifteen editions of the *Divina Comedia* printed in the fifteenth century, and that of the Abbey of Monte Cassino, noted for its medieval treasures of magnificently engraved prints.

The most recent review of Italian libraries (*Elenco delle Biblioteche d'Italia*, Milani, Associazione Editoriale Libreria Italiana, 1926) gives data on the size of libraries in Italy, and records in all, large, medium, and small, about 4,400 libraries.

For the reasons already mentioned it has been impossible to adopt in Italy for the care, arrangement, and utilization of such an enormous amount of material, that uniformity of method and largeness of contributions so characteristic of the United States, rich in resources, strong in European experience, and the last to commence the great development of its libraries ...

But on the other hand, the Anglo-American rules which had been formulated as the result of serious study and long experience, could not be applied as a whole to the material generally found in the Italian libraries. So our commission reexamined those rules one by one, and adapted them to our particular needs.

The Fascist government intends to pay particular attention to the restoration of the libraries and to the technical training of the employees.

The government has lately appointed a director general of the state libraries, who, assisted by a commission of experts, will study all professional problems and the means of putting into practice a larger scheme of reform for the libraries*).

Service of the Prussian State Library.

Germany has since the middle ages been composed of a multiplicity of political units enjoying a great measure of independence from the current central government. In the sphere of cultural evolution that independence was instrumental in developing and maintaining a great number of cultural centers, which in their peculiarities reflect the great variety of German intellectual life. To that historical development Germany is indebted also for the great number of her scientific libraries, some of which look back upon a venerable age. Forty-five German libraries possess more than 200,000 volumes each, and twelve libraries have more than 500,000 volumes each. In turn, there are two libraries each of which has more than a million of volumes.

Measured by the standard of age of European libraries, the Prussian State Library is among the younger ones; it is exactly twenty-five years the junior of Harvard University. Even among German libraries it is by no means the richest in old treasures.

*) **De Gregori, Luigi.** The Italian libraries in the last half-century. A. L. A. Bulletin, 20: 239-44, 1925.

Dr. **De Gregori** is Chief Librarian at the Casanatense Library, Rome.

In this respect it is considerably excelled, for instance, by the Bavarian State Library at Munich, with which the uncommonly rich collection of the Bavarian monasteries were incorporated at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The evolution of the last hundred years has, however, placed the Prussian State Library at the head of all German libraries by the aggregate size of its collections and the extent of its organization. It is not the German national library in the same senses as is the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris, the national library of France. It is the central library of the Prussian State ... Among the German scientific libraries the Prussian State Library, thru its organic connection with the libraries of ten Prussian universities and four Prussian technical high schools, is largely called upon to take charge of important central functions.

The State Library has two millions of printed volumes, with a yearly accession of 60,000 volumes, small pamphlets collected in a volume being counted only as one. Further, there are six thousand incunabula. The library is divided into different departments, among them the manuscript department, containing 55,000 manuscripts and 320,000 autographs; the music department, which is the largest of all existing music collections; the map department, containing 400,000 maps; and the department of phonetics, established only a few years ago, where dialects and foreign languages are phonographically fixed for the purposes of scientific investigation. More than 2,000 sound records have already been made and filed in the archives. Aside from the director general and his chief assistant, the Library has a staff of three hundred and twenty, including seven department directors and seventy-two scientific officials.

The State Library building was completed in 1914. Covering an area of 17,000 square meters, it has thirteen stories, of which the upper ones are used as stack rooms. The large reading room in the center of the building is open daily from 9 a. m. to 9 p. m. It seats three hundred and sixty people at writing desks, and provides a large open shelf reference library, freely accessible to all users. Adjoining it is the reading room for periodicals, where 2,600 — out of the 20,000 periodicals regularly furnished to the State Library — are open for perusal. The manuscript, music, oriental, and map departments have each their own working and reading rooms, with special reference collections of books, selected for their specific purposes.

The State Library has three large general catalogues, a classed catalogue in book form, and an alphabetical card catalogue.

In the classed catalogue the entire stock of printed books is classified according to a definite scientific system. The catalogue comprises at present 1,020 volumes and serves at the same time as a shelf list. According to their entry in the classed catalogue, the books receive their respective signatures and are therefore arranged on the shelves in systematical order. A subject index facilitates the use of the catalogue. Sixteen scientific librarians, selected according to their respective specialties, are permanently at work on the classed catalogue, the individual sections being each in charge of a specialist. These experts are also required to keep informed on the literature in their respective special branches and to designate what is recommended for acquisition. Accordingly, the classed catalogue determines not only the order in which the whole stock of printed books is arranged, but also the way in which it is systematically supplemented and kept up-to-date. In spite of some disadvantages due to the limitation of time to which all scientific classifications are subject, the systematic catalogue has nevertheless proved an extremely valuable aid, since it affords a comprehensive survey of the complete literature which the library contains on any given subject. The catalogue is accessible to the users of the library. An expert official is in attendance for the exclusive purpose of giving advice and assistance in the use of this catalogue.

The alphabetical catalogue in book form, being the easiest to use, is the one most frequently resorted to by the public. It comprises 26,000 volumes, with a yearly accession of ninety volumes. The alphabetical card catalogue is reserved for exclusive use by the officials of the library. It is the most detailed record of the complete stock of books. Of the printed catalogue of manuscripts, which is as yet unfinished, thirty quarto volumes have so far been completed. A catalogue of the miniatures contained in the manuscripts will be published shortly.

Since 1892 the titles for entry into the catalogues have been printed, the State Library printing not only the titles of its own accessions, but also those for all of the ten Prussian university libraries; so that the Title Prints, published in yearly volumes, contain a complete list of all the accessions of both the State Library and the ten Prussian university libraries during any one year. The titles are printed besides on cards of the international size for use in the card catalogues of the State Library and the

Prussian university libraries. In 1925 the total number of printed titles was 50,000.

As regards the use made of the State Library, it must be emphasized, in the first place, that it is a circulating library, in contrast with the great scientific libraries in other countries which are reference libraries. Everybody is admitted as a user who can show that he pursues some serious scientific or literary object. An insignificant fee is charged for the use of the books.

During the last year the reading rooms were used by 450,000 people, that is, 1,555 a day. In addition, the majority of them used the open shelf reference libraries, immediately accessible. Beyond that, 170,000 volumes were given out from the stacks for use in the reading room, while 300,000 volumes were lent to 14,000 persons for use in the home. Fifty thousand volumes more were lent to subscribers out of town. Accordingly, of the total 520,000 given out, only 170,000 volumes were used in the rooms of the library building. The remaining 350,000 volumes were generally not available for public use for the usual loan period of from three to four weeks.

The circulation of the printed books involves a great amount of work besides making a considerable proportion of its books temporarily unavailable. Thus, last year twenty-four per cent of all the books called for could not be immediately furnished, because the desired books had been lent out, whereas only eight per cent of the books ordered were not contained in the library stock. This shows that the circulating system has its great disadvantages. On the other hand, the desire to use the books at their own homes is a peculiarity so strongly rooted in the mental make-up of German scientific brainworkers that the State Library cannot be transformed into a purely reference library until some library in Berlin is ready to take over the circulation service. There is, however, no such library at present, nor can one be created within a measurable space of time under existing economic conditions.

The State Library receives according to law a free copy of most of the newly published literature in Prussia. Another such free copy is furnished to the library of the university in the province within which the new book is published. Everything else has to be purchased. Aside from German books, the State Library has all along paid particular attention to foreign literature. It has been a matter of the greatest regret, therefore, that for nearly ten years it was practically impossible to purchase any foreign literature.

We are now bending all our energies to the task of filling the gaps left from that time, as far as we possibly can. In connection with our efforts in that direction, I take great pleasure in making grateful acknowledgment of the liberal assistance extended to us abroad, and especially by the United States.

Publications regularly issued by the State Library, aside from the *Title Prints*, are the *Annual Report* and the *Mitteilungen aus der Staatsbibliothek*. The *Annual Report* is widely distributed among libraries at home and also abroad. In the *News from the State Library* scientific essays by members of the State Library staff are currently published at regular intervals. Among the special publications more recently brought out by the State Library, special mention is due to the magnificently appointed work on Old Book Covers by Dr. Husung, which appeared in 1925.

Between the State Library on the one hand, and the libraries of ten Prussian universities and four technical high schools, on the other, which (together with the State Library) have an aggregate stock of six and a half millions of printed volumes, 11,000 incunabula, and 80,000 manuscripts, an organic connection is established thru the Advisory Board for Library Matters. This is composed of the Director General of the State Library as chairman and a number of library directors, librarians, and university professors as members. It is the function of the Advisory Board to discuss matters of common interest concerning all Prussian state libraries, and to prepare them for decision by the state government. Such common matters are, for instance, the yearly appropriations for the individual libraries, questions concerning catalogues, the training of library officials and so forth. The Advisory Board has proved an extremely useful institution for combining the Prussian state libraries into a solid and uniform system.

The university libraries and those of the technical high schools are organized essentially on the same fundamental lines as the State Library. Primarily, of course, they serve the needs of the faculties and students of the respective universities or technical high schools, but in addition they are also open to anyone who is engaged in serious scientific or literary work. Like the State Library, they circulate their books. Of recent years, some of the libraries have come to specialize on particular lines, since it is steadily getting more difficult for a small or medium-sized library adequately to embrace all existing literature. Thus the university at Bonn particularly cultivates the literature of the Latin countries, Göttingen,

according to time-honored tradition, English and American literatures, while Breslau specializes in Slavonic, Kiel in Scandinavian, and Greifswald in Low-German literature. In this way, what may be called a national division of labor, has been established among the libraries, and this proves of great benefit to all of them.

A common institution of the whole system is the "Gesamtkatalog der Preussischen Wissenschaftlichen Bibliotheken", or Union Catalogue of the Prussian Scientific Libraries. This card catalogue has been compiled under the auspices of the State Library after thirty years of strenuous work. It contains a complete record of all the printed books in possession of the Prussian state libraries. It has more than two million cards and is currently kept up to date by the Berlin *Title Prints*. Recently it has been decided to have this complete catalogue printed. It may be reasonably hoped that the printing can be started in about a year and then we may succeed in completing a monumental work, such as was once accomplished in completing the printed catalogue of the Library of the British Museum. It is to be hoped also that this complete catalogue of the Prussian libraries may at some future time be enlarged into a complete catalogue of the German scientific societies libraries.

Another common feature of the Prussian libraries is the training of the young generation for library work. Whoever wants to become a scientific librarian must first have obtained the academic degree of doctor and passed a state examination in the branches of science to which he has devoted himself. He may then be admitted as a "Volontär", a scientific library apprentice, and as such has to pass thru two years preparatory work with the State Library or one of the university libraries. After that he has to submit to a state examination which, if he passes it successfully, qualifies him for a position with the staff of a Prussian state library.

Library assistants of medium grade are required only to have a high school education. Their professional training is not confined to adapting them for service with scientific libraries, but comprises training for public libraries as well. The preparation extends over a period of four years, one of which must be spent at a scientific and one at a public library, the remaining two years being devoted to theoretical training. A special course for the latter has been established in Berlin, but attendance at it is not necessarily required. At the conclusion of the training period an examination must be passed before a commission of state examiners. At present a change in the examination regulations is in preparation, requiring a higher

degree of school education and reducing the period of professional training to three years; it also provides that the requirements at the examination shall be different, according to whether it is to qualify for employment with a scientific or a public library. This is primarily intended to meet the needs of the public libraries.

An adjunct of the State Library is the *Auskunftsbureau der Deutschen Bibliotheken*, or Information Bureau of the German Libraries. Its function is to ascertain whether a book sought is contained in the stock of any German library, and if so, where it may be found. Occasionally, similar information is also furnished regarding books in foreign libraries. The Information Bureau keeps permanently in touch with about four hundred German Libraries and on that account has proved an exceedingly useful institution for scientific work. Its principal function, as stated, is limited to tracing and locating books, the titles of which are given to it by those looking for the books. Beyond that, however, it is both able and prepared, in suitable cases, to furnish such bibliographical information as is obtainable with the aid of its bibliographical equipment, coupled with the Union Catalogue and the Bureau's widespread relations with other libraries. The bibliographical training of the Information Bureau officials has been utilized in a great many ways for cooperation in preparing bibliographies for special fields of literature. A comprehensive bibliography completed by the Bureau on its own account is the complete list of the periodicals currently kept on file by more than three hundred and fifty German libraries, which was published in 1914. It contains more than 17,000 titles of periodicals, and with each title are listed the libraries in which the respective periodicals may be found.

In 1921 the Bureau published a complete list of the foreign periodicals then on file in 360 libraries. It contains 3,400 different foreign periodicals. In the course of that work it was found that of the foreign periodicals contained in the complete list of 1914 four thousand were no longer on file, an impressive memento bearing evidence of the detriment wrought by Germany's being shut off from foreign literature. Since that time, every possible effort has been made to fill this gap. The Information Bureau has prepared a new complete list of foreign periodicals, which is to appear in 1927 and will show a total of 13,000 different foreign periodicals on file in eight hundred German libraries.

The exceedingly effective and useful activity of the Information Bureau can be fully appreciated only when it is remembered that

the German scientific libraries are circulating their books and manuscripts, and are doing so not only in their respective home cities, but among out-of-town subscribers as well. This "German Library Circulation" is governed by special regulations. Eligible for admission to it is every library conducted on approved principles, and agreeing to reciprocate the service. Individuals who are unable to get a particular book at the library in their city and desiring to have it from another library, ascertain by inquiry to the Information Bureau where the desired book may be found. They then apply thru their home library to the one named to them by the Information Bureau. The fee for loaning the books amounts only to ten pfennigs, or two and one half cents for each book; all the other expenses are borne by the libraries. The great advantage of this method of procedure for scientific workers living at places with small libraries is very plain. On the other hand, it imposes a heavy burden on the large libraries. As stated above, the State Library circulated 50,000 volumes among out-of-town users last year.

Printed books and manuscripts are also lent to libraries abroad which will agree to reciprocate. There is hardly any European country which does not avail itself of such help on the part of the State Library. During the past year, more than 1,100 printed volumes were lent to foreign libraries in seventeen different states.

The Association of German Librarians was founded in 1900 and has nearly six hundred members at present. Every year, following its annual meeting, it arranges a "German Library Day", on which occasion general questions concerning library work are discussed. The Association publishes the *Jahrbuch der Deutschen Bibliotheken*, or *Year Book of German Libraries*, which, in addition to a descriptive list of libraries and a list of scientific library officials, contains the decrees and ordinances of the German states, and valuable statistical information. Ever since its organization the Association has done most creditable work in taking care of the interests of the German libraries and librarians.

With a mention, lastly, of the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, which is the literary center for the discussion of all questions concerning German libraries, and which contains besides current reports on the libraries abroad I conclude this cursory review of the German literary institutions. In my survey I have had to refrain from dwelling on the public libraries in Germany, because I do not consider myself as sufficiently qualified to discuss them. I regret that they cannot be treated here by one of their representatives

in a separate paper, as would befit their great importance. This is even more regrettable, since I believe that you would have been especially interested in the subject*).

Public libraries in Germany.

To be called upon for a report on the German Public Libraries, on the occasion of the semi-centennial anniversary celebration of the American Library Association, is a privilege which I appreciate as a particular honor. Before I enter upon a detailed description, let us cast a glance at the general cultural situation in Germany for the purpose of getting a better understanding of public library conditions. The great majority of the German population, in spite of various shiftings in the course of the last century, is still more closely connected with the particular cultural bases in the various local sections of the country. It was not subjected to the allurements of those wide stretches of unsettled virgin land, the mainspring of American development. The great mass of the German middle classes who support and represent German cultural life, owned their individual libraries, mostly inherited from their fathers. Home reading in owned books was a necessity for educated Germans, just as home reading is by far the preponderant feature in the use of the public libraries. The low prices of the Reclam and Tauchnitz editions, which made English books cheaper in Germany than they were in England, enabled the very schoolboy to acquire a miniature library of universal literature. Thus the individual was accompanied throughout life by the inherited stock of books and those he had added during the time of his development; and up to a short time prior to the War, each generation was wont to both read and quote the classics. Many good scientific as well as school and private society libraries afforded a substitute for the public libraries, which, up to a certain degree, was sufficient, since they were accessible to all educated people. That is why the need for public, general educational libraries was for a long time felt less urgently by the German cultural strata than it was in the United States. Education for an intellectual aristocracy, and not as a basis of democracy, was the object aimed at by the German cultural strata. Moreover,

*) **Kruss, Hugo.** The Prussian State Library. Library journal, 51 : 4005-10, 1926.
Dr. **Kruss** is Director General of the Prussian State Library

in the German educational system the public libraries were not of equal importance as in the United States, because, as a rule, individuals were compelled by law to attend school for a longer time and instruction at school was more systematic. The percentage of analphabets was smaller in Germany than in any other civilized country. Besides, the former German army training should not be overlooked as an educational factor. Now, considering the position occupied by the public libraries in the present German system of libraries, we find that, even in the view of the government, they are deemed considerably inferior in importance to the large scientific libraries. To illustrate: Berlin has the universal Prussian State Library, providing scientific literature to a select class of readers throughout the country; it has the general university and technical high school libraries and those of the training colleges and the institutions of research; the giant special collections of the former ministerial departments for use in performing their large governmental tasks; the libraries of scientific societies, schools and churches. And aside from these it also has a central public library with ninety branches; but these public libraries own no more than 800,000 volumes as compared with 6,250,000 volumes in the scientific universal and special libraries. Thus Germany even today excels mostly in her large scientific university and special libraries, whose cooperation through the German interlibrary loan in connection with an information bureau, and other common institutions guarantees the efficiency of the German library system.

A characteristically German feature is the multiplicity of forms and different points of view started from the organization of libraries, the personalities of their respective heads being the determining factors. In many instances the public libraries were combined with existing collections of books, thereby producing new points of variation. In other cities the public libraries are found to be in close cooperation with those of private societies, developing new and independent forms for popular education. The principal German types are the following:

First: The public libraries in the proper sense of the term, maintained by municipalities and mostly consisting of a central library and a number of branches, working in close cooperation with university extensions, public lectures, discussion classes and reading circles. Technically, these libraries, in turn, are of very different types. Most of them — at least those of all the larger cities — have good reading rooms and children's libraries; in some

cases, as for instance in Munich, Charlottenburg, Stettin, and other cities, they have adjuncts containing musical collections.

Second: Traveling libraries are sent through the country in most parts of Germany, partially in connection with fixed county libraries, supervised by twelve consultation bureaus. There are also associations of county libraries in many parts of Germany ...

Third: There are libraries maintained or supported by societies for popular education. Die Gesellschaft für Volksbildung (The Society for Popular Education), Der Rhein-Mainsche Verband (The Rhine-Main Union), and the Deutsche Dichter-Gedächtnis-Stiftung (German Poets' Memorial Foundation) are working along the same lines of political and religious impartiality as the above described library types.

Fourth: Aside from these libraries and associations pursuing "educational aims", there are libraries with more or less pronounced political party affiliations, especially the trades-union libraries, supported and supervised by the educational committee of the Social Democratic party.

All along, the German public libraries were forced to carry on their work with very small resources and they accordingly laid particular stress on the thorough training of librarians and library assistants. The hard time of the political and social upheaval was the very period that gave a strong push to the public library movement, because it was the first time that the educational departments of the government became more strongly interested in the question of free popular education. It is true that, properly speaking, even now there is no library legislation in Germany, but in most of the states special regulations have been issued regarding the training of librarians, because nothing but a high standard of quality promises success in carrying on the work. Except in Saxony, the training is uniform for the scientific and the public libraries, covering a period of from three to four years after a complete high-school course.

Common to all German public libraries is their unbounded enthusiasm in serving the cause of popular education. What they aspire to is not to provide knowledge but to convey culture. They do not see their supreme achievement in absolute compliance with the desires of their readers, but instead they pursue an ethical object through popular education to a consciousness of the people as a whole whom they want to serve regardless of political parties and

cliques. The German slogan is not Bacon's "Knowledge is Power", but "Bildung ist Glück" (Goethe), (In culture there is Happiness *).

French libraries.

The university libraries of Paris and of the provinces are especially intended for the use of professors and university students; they may, in a sense, be considered public, for the number of regular matriculants in a university, who have access to its library, is, in fact, unlimited. They date only from 1873, but they have grown rapidly for they are endowed from important funds, benefit from international exchange, and are maintained by a fee paid by each student when he enters.

The forty-two classified municipal libraries of the departments are public libraries, open under certain conditions of age and good conduct. They have very large collections of books belonging to the national government, which include especially deposits of valuable books which were made during the revolutionary period. In comparison with these the modern works are of little value because of insufficient annual budgets.

The other municipal libraries, installed in provincial towns, do not always give adequate service; many of them need longer hours of opening, larger budgets, and staffs of librarians who are really professional.

In Paris, there are eighty-three municipal libraries, whose housing and budgets are equally insufficient. The administration endeavors to furnish them with good books and to organize technical departments, taking account of the location of the various trades.

There are still to be found in Paris more than a hundred very large libraries, which however are intended for a special clientele and often are reserved for the use of this clientele: ministerial libraries, libraries of administration and public service, of scientific institutions, of commercial or industrial groups, etc.

As for school libraries, there is also very much to be done; books which are put at the disposal of children, in our primary schools, are too few and not wisely chosen. The school and college libraries are almost universally without interest, even where they have (as in certain Paris schools) a large number of books.

*) **Jürgens, Adolf.** The public library movement in Germany. A. L. A. Bulletin, 20: 208-11, 1926.

On the whole, France does not lack scholarly libraries, which offer an infinite variety of intellectual resources, but many of such libraries need active efforts to increase their effectiveness. Public reading facilities need to be organized in more democratic fashion and to reach town and country workers — in a word, it is necessary to multiply "libraries for all" *).

Bibliothèque Nationale, 1913.

The history of the Bibliothèque Nationale begins under Charlemagne, who had a collection of manuscript books at Aix-la-Chapelle. Most of these have been lost or stolen, but a few remain. Then Saint Louis gathered some books in the Sainte Chapelle, the church he built to house the Crown of Thorns he brought back from the Crusades. Charles V seems to have been the first real book collector. He maintained a corps of copyists at the Louvre and gathered books right and left, entrusting them, to the care of Gilles Malet, his valet de chambre. At his death the royal library contained nine hundred and ten volumes, which Malet's inventory or catalogue names. Fires, thefts, and gifts reduced the number to eight hundred and fifty in 1423. The library was kept in various Chateaux until 1594, when in the time of Charles IX it was moved to Paris, part to the College de Clermont, and part to the Louvre. It was increased by eight hundred volumes by Catherine de Medici, many of the books bearing her arms remaining to this day. Louis XIV, the great Louis, was the first king of France to take an active and intelligent interest in the library. Colbert, his minister, carried the collection to his house in the Rue Vivienne, to the spot where now stands the magnificent institution of which Paris is proud. At the death of Louis XIV (1715), the number of volumes barely exceeded seventy thousand, so that the present vast collection may be said to have been made since then — just about two centuries.

Until Colbert's time the royal library was open only to friends of the king and his servants. It was only in 1692 that the Abbé de Louvois, chief librarian, decided to open the library twice a week to students — an experiment that does not seem to have worked

*) **Henriot, Gabriel.** Note on French libraries. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 20: 201-02, 1926.
Dr. **Henriot** is President of l'Association des Bibliothécaires français.

well, for the privilege was soon withdrawn. It was in 1720 that the Abbé Jean Paul Bignon threw open the king's library to all accredited savants, French and foreign, who might wish to study there. It was also open to the public once a week, but only for two hours. During the forty years preceding the Revolution it was open to the public twice a week, from nine to two o'clock, and to savants, every day. About one hundred persons took advantage daily of this privilege. The number of volumes had increased to three hundred thousand. This, notwithstanding constant thefts, of which the most famous was that committed in 1705—7 by an apostate priest, Jean Aymon, who under pretext of obtaining arguments against heresy, stole several thousand rare MSS. and books, which he sold in Holland and elsewhere.

Under the Revolution the libraries belonging to monasteries and convents and from the Chateaux of the nobles who fled the country and the guillotine, were confiscated by the State, resulting in an enormous increase in the number of books. They were heaped up in piles, in cellars and garrets. Then came the Napoleonic conquests, which resulted in thousands of volumes from all over Europe. The famous soldier had good taste in books, pictures and works of art and a taking way. Most of these treasures were, however, returned after Waterloo to the libraries thus despoiled. The Revolutionists were not of a literary turn of mind; the librarians of the Bibliothèque had a hard time of it. One of them, Carra, was guillotined; another, Chamfort, committed suicide, and a third, Van Praet, one of the most distinguished, escaped from France. Nevertheless the library grew steadily. In 1793 a law had been passed compelling printers and authors to deposit two copies of every book or engraving published, in the national library. In 1807 the library, which had suffered greatly during stormy years from wholesale theft, contained about 250,000 printed books, 83,000 manuscripts, 85,000 medals and coins and 1,500,000 engravings. During the first half of the eighteenth century these collections grew by leaps and bounds, although they were so loosely guarded that thieves still made rich hauls.

The Bibliothèque Nationale now occupies the whole block bounded by the Rue Vivienne, des Petits-Champs, Richelieu and Colbert. On the Rue des Petit-Champs is the palace built in 1633 for Tubeuf, minister of finances. At the corner of the Rue de Richelieu is the pile built for Cardinal Mazarin by Mansard, the architect who, as Mansard, has been made responsible for so many

atrocities in our own land. On the other streets are the buildings that once housed the bank of the famous Law, whose bankruptcy in 1720 shook the finances of Europe. For a time the Bourse of Paris found a new home here. Thus almost every part of the vast institution is of historical interest. The present reading-room, opened in 1868, remains almost unchanged. It has seats for three hundred and forty-four readers and room for about one hundred more, who can stand up at long desks to consult the twenty thousand volumes of reference on the open shelves around the room. The main reading-room is open only to those holding a card from the director. If a foreigner, it is necessary to obtain from one's ambassador or consul a note of introduction, upon presentation of which a card is given. Without some such restriction the room would be filled with persons having no serious business there. For those who come to read for amusement there is the free reading-room, with no restrictions as to entrance, where forty thousand volumes may be consulted.

To an American visiting the Bibliothèque Nationale for the first time the process of obtaining a book seems rather complicated. If he goes to the main room for the purpose of study, he must first get his card from the director. The guard at the door, who scrutinizes this card, hands him a blank, upon which he must write his name, address and the number of the desk he selects. This blank must be deposited with a clerk at the main desk. Only then is the visitor at liberty to fill out another blank calling for the book he wants. As the printed catalogue of the library is not half-finished after twenty years of work, the chief resource of readers is the card catalogue, in which is supposed to be found a record of every work received since 1872. It is not a card catalogue, such as is to be found in our American libraries, but a collection of small volumes containing slips in alphabetical order. On one side of the main desk are the slip catalogues by subject, on the other by author. Every slip bears a letter of the alphabet and a number, which must be put upon the demand blank — also the name of the author, title of volume and if possible date of publication. And again the visitor must write out his name, address, and the number of this desk. The book is brought to that desk by an attendant. When through with a book the reader takes it back to the main desk, where a clerk examines it and stamps *Rendu* on the blank obtained at the door, and this blank must be given up on passing out the room. Thus it is as difficult to get out of the library as into it.

The writer's experience with the Bibliothèque Nationale, an experience which dates back many years, has been that everything possible is done to help the reader. The librarians are all trained men, most of them graduates of the Ecole des Chartes, who obtain their places upon merit.

The Bibliothèque Nationale comprises four departments — (1) Printed books; (2) Manuscripts; (3) Medals and Coins; (4) Engravings. It is governed by a director (Administrateur general) appointed by the Government, and one assistant for each of the departments. These assistants must be graduates of the Ecole des Chartes or of the Ecole des Langues Orientales. The sub-librarians must have bachelors' diplomas and face an examination before the chief librarians.

The department of manuscripts is of course the oldest of the four departments, many of its treasures dating back to Charlamagne, notably a precious *Book of Hours* made by the order of the emperor in 781 on purple vellum, with gold initials and miniatures of extraordinary interest. Until the Revolution it was the chief treasures of the church of Saint-Sernin of Toulouse, which city offered it to Napoleon I in 1811 . . .

Besides the vast number of illuminated missals and historical works on vellum, the Bibliothèque Nationale contains priceless modern manuscripts, such as Pascal's original copy of his *Pensées*, Rouget des Lisle's copy of the "Marseillaise", and manuscripts of Lamartine, Hugo, Renan, Zola, and so forth. At present the collection of manuscripts, numbering about one hundred and fifteen thousand volumes, is the richest in the world.

Several interesting problems concerning the Bibliothèque Nationale must be dealt with in the next few years. Notwithstanding the recent additions to the buildings it is only a question of a short time when the ocean of books will overflow the present reservoir. It has been found necessary to send some of the material of least value to Fontainebleau — all the prayer-books, thousands of them all of the same type, and hundreds of thousands of works, mostly theological, that are not called for once in twenty years. The present buildings are not fireproof, and while fires are rare in Paris, the possibility of a great conflagration in the Rue Vivienne is enough to make all book lovers shudder. This is one reason why artificial light is so sparingly used and the library never opened at night. M. Camille Bloch, the general inspector of French libraries, made a report recently in which he suggests opening the library at night and

increasing the seating capacity of the reading-room. The amount of money allowed to the library by the government is small as compared to that spent upon the British Museum library or the Library of Congress in the United States*).

Libraries of Holland.

Libraries of a purely scientific character: The oldest of these libraries are the university libraries of Leyden (dating back to the year 1575), Utrecht (1584), Groningen (1615) and Amsterdam (municipal library, dating from 1578). Some of these originate from the old monastic libraries of the Middle Ages and possess a great wealth of manuscripts and incunabula. A small old library, where the books, fastened with chains, rest on lecterns as was the custom in the Middle Ages, is the so-called "Librye" (library) of Saint Walpurgis Church at Zutphen, province of Gelderland.

Besides the university libraries of Amsterdam and Leyden, the Royal Library at the Hague also numbers as one of the largest libraries (500,000—1,000,000 volumes).

Libraries of a purely scientific character are moreover to be found in all important towns of the Netherlands. They are either municipal or provincial institutions or they originate from an old former university, some of them also belonging to the more recent universities as at Delft (Technics), Wageningen (Agriculture), Rotterdam (Commerce), where there is a large municipal library as well, and Nimwegen (Roman Catholic University).

Apart from these, many other libraries, scattered all over the country, bear a special character, for instance the library of the Palace of Peace (60,000 volumes dealing with international law, municipal law, etc.).

The libraries erected since 1892 with a social purpose: Most of the public libraries are private institutions which, however, are subventioned by the state, the province, and the municipality. As a rule small subscription is demanded from the readers. Some public libraries have a religious tendency and belong to a Roman Catholic or orthodox Protestant association**).

* **Hubert, Philip G.** The world's greatest library. *The Bookman* 38: 31-44, 1913-14.

** **Ter Meulen, Jacob.** Essential facts about the library movement in Holland. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 20: 238, 1926.

Dr. Ter Meulen is Chief librarian, Palace of Peace, at the Hague.

Libraries of Norway.

The development of libraries in Norway has been similar to that in most countries of Europe. Already in the Middle Ages collections of books were attached to several ecclesiastical and learned institutions, but none of these collections exist today, and it is only the history of libraries during the last 160 years which has a direct bearing on the presentday conditions. It was in the year 1767 that the foundation was laid for the development of the scientific libraries. The other type of Norwegian libraries, viz., the public libraries, date from the close of the eighteenth century, and have had their own independent development, without any special connection with the scientific libraries.

1. *The Scientific Libraries.* The scientific libraries are all connected with institutions, whose special interests they serve, without, however, excluding the public in any way from the use of the books for scientific purposes. This arrangement seems also to be the most natural in a small country with limited resources, because the expert knowledge which the scientific staff of the institution possesses in that way directly assists the library in solving its chief problem, the purchase of books.

There are in Norway a little more than 100 scientific or technical libraries containing altogether about 1,750,000 volumes. The oldest is the library of the Royal Norwegian Scientific Society at Trondhjem, established in the year 1767. This library has recently specialized in history and biology. It possesses now about 150,000 volumes.

The largest library in the country, the University Library in Oslo, must be mentioned in greater detail, as that will serve to throw light on the conditions under which the scientific libraries in Norway are working. Although it is not older than September 2, 1811, having been founded simultaneously with the University by Royal Decree, the fact that it started with a basis of about 60,000 volumes of older valuable literature places it on a footing with libraries of much greater antiquity. The Library has on the whole grown steadily and according to European standards rather quickly. In the year 1846 it had about 100,000 volumes, in 1884 about 260,000 volumes, and at the present time about 700,000 volumes. The yearly addition has also increased from 6,500 in 1884 to 18,000 in 1925. As regards the purchase of books the Library, owing to the smallness of the grants, worked under difficulties.

The annum (i. e., the yearly grant for the purchase and binding of books) was, in the budget year 1879-1880, kroner 24,000 (about 6,500 dollars), in 1924-1925, kroner 121,000 (about 24,200 dollars) and during the first years after the Great War somewhat larger, in the year 1921-1922, kroner 160,000 (about 28,000 dollars).

Of other more important scientific libraries must be mentioned the Bergen Museum Library, founded in 1825 with a stock of about 160,000 volumes, especially natural science and Scandinavian history and philology. As the result of the imminent addition of a museum to the University Library it will naturally become the central scientific library in Western Norway. In Oslo there are collections of books in twenty-seven different university institutions with a stock of about 130,000 volumes, a natural supplement to the collections of the University Library. There are the library of the Storting (Parliament), with about 60,000 volumes of politics, law, etc.; and the library of the Norwegian Nobel Institution, containing 40,000 volumes, with special reference to literature on world peace, international law, modern political history, and political economy. The library of the Central Bureau of Statistics with about 45,000 volumes and that of the Public Record Office (about 25,000 volumes) must also be mentioned.

2. *The Public Libraries.* The history of the modern public libraries goes back to the local libraries established at the close of the eighteenth century and maintained by private associations, the so-called reading associations. The libraries could not, however, develop in any systematic way until the principle of state support for public libraries became generally recognized. The idea of such support dates from the beginning of the nineteenth century and in 1818 the first resolution to that effect was brought forward to the Storting (Parliament) . . . In recent years it has amounted to about kroner 150,000 (33,300 dollars) annually. However, in addition to the state grant the libraries have also received local support, and this as regards the larger libraries has been of the greatest importance. Thus in the case of Deichman's Library in Oslo, where in 1923 only kroner 2,000 (440 dollars) of the annual income of kroner 300,000 (66,000 dollars) came from the State.

. . . There are in Norway about 1,200 public libraries with a total stock of about 1,400,000 volumes, sixty-three being in the towns, with 800,000 volumes. This number, which in proportion to the population is excessively great, is due to the size of the country and its difficult natural conditions, e. g., lakes, fjords, and

high mountains which divide the various districts, making communication difficult and necessitating that each district however thinly populated should have its own library. In all these libraries Dewey's decimal system is used, both in the rooms and catalogues. The larger town libraries try by means of branches and lending depots in the various suburbs and in other ways to awaken interest in reading, especially among children and young people. By means of story-telling hours they try to implant literary interests and in recent years several of the larger town-libraries, especially Deichman's Library in Oslo, have appointed school librarians to work in the various elementary schools and these have proved to be very successful.

Besides the public libraries there are certain school collections, which also work under the control of the Library Office. There are at present 700 of these with a total number of 65,000 volumes.

Deichman's Library, established 1785 with 180,000 volumes and 40,000 borrowers and lending annually 800,000, has already been mentioned. We may also mention Bergen Public Library, established 1874, reorganized in 1910 with 150,000 volumes. Since 1917 it has had its own building and is making great progress.

Finally I will mention the Norwegian Library Association founded in 1913, which is an amalgamation of libraries and library officials. The object is chiefly the issuing of technical papers and popular scientific literature, and, in cooperation with the above-mentioned Library Office, the arranging of annual library meetings. Moreover we have associations of library officials for the protection of their special interests*).

Libraries of Sweden.

The most important libraries of Sweden are the great scientific libraries, the Royal Library of Stockholm, and the university libraries of Uppsala and Lund.

The Royal Library, as Sweden's national library, collecting and preserving Swedish literature to the utmost possible extent, had its origin in the private collections of the first kings of Wasa... The right to a free copy of all Swedish print, granted in 1661, has been of the most vital importance to the acquisition.

*) **Andersen, Tor Magnus**, Library conditions in Norway today and some remarks on the future. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 20: 252-58, 1926.

Concerning the foreign literature, the Library procures nowadays chiefly humanistic literature (history, philology, the fine arts, etc.). The collections comprise about 500,000 volumes, about 1,500,000 pamphlets each containing less than 100 pages, as well as more than 150,000 portraits, maps, engravings, etc. The manuscripts exceed 12,000, and the paleotypes are about 1,230.

The Royal Library publishes a catalogue yearly, containing the new acquisitions of foreign literature to be found in forty-six Swedish libraries.

The Library of the University of Uppsala was founded in 1620 by a donation of Gustav II Adolphus, who presented to the University a collection of about 4,000 volumes, including remnants of some old monastery libraries.

The University's right to a free copy of all Swedish print was granted in 1707.

The Library, which includes all branches of science, is especially rich in printed books from the first two centuries of the art of printing. The collections are estimated at about 700,000 volumes, more than 80,000 portraits, engravings drawings, etc., and about 17,000 manuscripts.

The library of the University of Lund, founded at the same time as the university itself (1666) was considerably augmented twenty years later by the donation of the library belonging to E. Gripenhielm, Chancellor to the Crown. The right to a free example of all Swedish print was granted to this University in 1698. The library contains at present about 350,000 volumes, and a great many pamphlets of less than 100 pages each.

The library of the city Göteborg may be counted at present also among the big scientific libraries. Its collections, which have been mainly enlarged by a succession of private donations, contain at the moment about 240,000 volumes and over 80,000 pamphlets each of less than 100 pages.

Besides these four scientific libraries for public use, just mentioned, there are also many scientific libraries for special use, most of which are connected with academies or high schools ...

The libraries of the public high schools and grammar schools occupy half-way positions between the scientific libraries and the public libraries ...

Public libraries of the English and American type have been existing in Sweden since olden times, but it is only from the beginning of the twentieth century, when the state began to subsidize their

activity, that they have become popular. At present, libraries of this type exist in most of the townships of the country . . . In these libraries there were altogether more than 2,500,000 volumes in the year 1923. The grants for the same year were 386,000 kronor, and the subsidies from the townships amounted to 1,604,000 kronor. In the same year, 6,300,000 books were lent out. Among the most important of these public libraries is the that of the town of Norrköping which contains 100,000 volumes.

Libraries of Soviet Union.

There is a great difference between the Russian libraries of ten years ago and the present libraries in the Soviet Union. Under the old regime we had a few thousand libraries in the cities and in the country, but the exact number of them cannot be given, as at that time we had no official library statistics. Some of the great Russian libraries were world famed for their collections of manuscripts and rare books, but the imperial government looked with no favor on public libraries, especially libraries for the working classes, and did everything possible to prevent their development.

The government was opposed both to the improvement of library methods and to the training of librarians . . .

The change in library conditions between those days and the present was a gradual growth . . .

Several libraries were transferred from one city to another, some older libraries were consolidated and many new libraries came into being. As the political center of gravity shifted to Moscow, the former library of the Roumianzov Museum grew in importance and was renamed the All-Union Lenin Memorial Library, destined to be a cultural monument of the new epoch. This library now possesses over 3,000,000 volumes. A plan is in consideration by the Council of the People's Commissioners to erect for the All-Union Library a new up-to-date building by the side of its present beautiful palace, which is ill adapted to library service.

The former Imperial Library has by no means lost its importance, for Leningrad has continued to be a great intellectual center. This library is now called the State Public Library. With

*) **Sundstrom, Einar.** A general survey of Sweden's library system. A. L. A. Bulletin, 20 : 269-74, 1926.

Mr. **Sundstrom** is assistant librarian of the Royal Library, Stockholm.

its three branches, consisting of formerly independent libraries, it now possesses over 4,000,000 volumes. A decidedly new feature in this library is a special branch, in a separate building, designed particularly for young students, who will find there the special aids and special guidance they need and would fail to get elsewhere.

Almost all our former important scientific libraries have grown very rapidly in the last few years. Thus the Library of the Academy of Science in Leningrad, which is about 200 years old, possesses now nearly 3,000,000 volumes and has removed since last year to its new building. This building was ready just before the War, but was occupied by a military hospital. Other libraries, for example, the Library of the Historical Museum and the Library of the Polytechnic Museum at Moscow, have each over 1,000,000 volumes, the first specializing in history, the second in science and technology.

Several new libraries, founded since the revolution, have also attained considerable proportions. Thus the National Library of the Ukraine, in Kiev, founded in 1918, has already about 1,500,000 volumes. The Library of the Communist Academy at Moscow, founded in the same year, has over 600,000 volumes. This library, whose director is Mrs. H. M. Derman, formerly of the Library of Congress, is well organized, on the American pattern with the Library of Congress classification, open shelves, and a good dictionary catalogue.

All the university libraries are now accessible to everyone even for the home use of books, and most of their reading rooms are open daily, till 10 p. m.

More than twenty libraries in the Soviet Union receive books by what corresponds to copyright deposit. The State Public Library at Leningrad and the All-Union Lenin Memorial Library at Moscow each receive two copies of every publication. These libraries and the others throughout the Union that are entitled to receive deposit copies, get them through the State Central Book Chamber at Moscow, which gets them from the publishers.

Most of the public libraries are organized by the Boards of Education, but many also by the trade-unions, and a very lively work is being done in the Red Army, where there are some 1,500 permanent and 5,500 traveling libraries. The library systems are much like those in America and consist of a central library, branches (both with children's rooms), and traveling libraries; but we have as yet no book trucks, and the travelling librarian goes to the factory

with a so-called "hump of books" on his back. Circulation will be found everywhere, but open access is not general.

The Soviet government lays especial stress on education and is very favorable to libraries. Improved education facilities, the adoption of the Dalton plan and of the local dialects in the schools, unprecedented development of vocational education, which has a gain of seventy per cent, night schools for the illiterate, study clubs for the adults, workers' colleges and many other educational institutions for the adults together with the increased leisure due to the eight hour labor day, attract to the public libraries a large number of new readers. And the Public library in the Soviet Union is considered an invaluable medium for the spread of new ideas of citizenship, social life, hygiene, sport, science, agriculture, etc.*).

Chinese literature and libraries.

The exact origin of libraries in China, like the origin of many other cultural and educational institutions, has been lost in the mist of her great antiquity. Evidences are not wanting, however, to indicate that the beginnings of libraries were as early as the beginnings of China's culture and civilization. This would place their origin at a time as early as three thousand years before Christ.

Chinese history records that the earliest books in China, which were found in existence before the third century B. C. were known as *The three doctrines*, *The five codes*, *The eight diagrams*, and *The nine geographies*. The books next in antiquity were known as the *Six classics*, consisting of the *Book of changes*, *Book of poetry*, *Book of history*, *Book of spring and autumn*, *Book of rites*, and *Book of music*.

The material used in making books was at first limited to bamboo and silk. From the beginning of the invention of Chinese writing down to the third and fourth centuries B. C. bamboo plates or strips were used to make books. The length of the strips varied. For example, the strips used for the *Six classics* were two feet four inches in length while those in the *Classic of filial piety* were one foot two inches in length. During the early Han dynasty, in the

*) **Hamburger, Mrs. L. Haffkin.** The libraries in the Soviet Union. A. L. A. Bulletin, 20: 260-63, 1926.

Mrs. Hamburger is Director of the Institute for Library Science. All-Union Lenin Memorial Library, Moscow.

first century of the Christian era, the length of the bamboo strips varied from two feet to five inches. Silk was used from the fourth or fifth century B. C. down to the fifth or sixth century A. D. Books made of bamboo strips were tied together with pieces of leather . . . The writing on the bamboo strips was inscribed with a stylus and later it was done with a bamboo pen and ink of lacquer made from tree sap. The writing on silk was done with a feather pen made of deer or sheep hair . . .

Chinese history records at least two types of public libraries before 206 B. C., namely, the Imperial Library and the libraries of the feudal states . . .

One of the outstanding events is the invention and the application of block printing to the production of books. This discovery is usually attributed to Feng Tao, who lived during the latter part of the ninth century and the first part of the tenth century. It seems probable that some crude form of this invention had been already known before his time but it was not known as having been applied to the production of books. At least it did not become a familiar handicraft with the Chinese people until after his time.

Another event of importance in the development of the Chinese library consists in the stupendous encyclopedias produced by China during the last few centuries. In the early part of the fifteenth century under the reign of Yung Lo, a gigantic literary work was undertaken, namely the compilation by hand writing of an encyclopedia called *Yung Lo Ta Tien*, to produce which 2,169 scholars labored for five years under the guidance of five directors and twenty sub-directors. The work is divided into 22,877 sections, with an index of sixty sections. The whole was bound up in 11,000 volumes, averaging over a half inch in thickness, and measuring one foot eight in length by one foot in breadth . . .

During the eighteenth century under the glorious reign of Chien Lung, another gigantic literary work was undertaken, namely the compilation of an encyclopedia known as *Sau Ku Chuan Shu* or the *Four libraries* which is the largest encyclopedia in the world. It is divided into four parts: Classics, History, Philosophy, and Miscellany and includes practically every phase of human knowledge then in existence. This world-famous book has 36,000 volumes.

There are in China today some ten or more different types of libraries. They include public libraries, national, provincial, and local; traveling or circulating libraries; libraries in schools, colleges,

and universities; libraries of scientific societies; libraries erected in memory of distinguished personages; libraries in the ministries of the national government; and special libraries of the chambers of commerce and commercial bodies and houses, and other special or private libraries.

What have been the influences which have contributed to the progress of the library movement in China? One of the important influences has been the rapid spread of modern education. In 1911 there were enrolled in the Chinese modern public schools some 2,000,000 children of school age. Today at least 7,000,000 are found in these schools with as many enrolled in the old style schools in which only the Chinese subjects are taught. The popular education movement has made possible the spread of education among the masses. This great increase of educated people and their thirst for new knowledge has created a new demand for more and better libraries.

A third influence which has contributed to the development of the modern library movement in China has been the achievement of publishing houses . . . Up to August 1925 there have been published 14,523 books in Chinese, English, and other languages, including textbooks for schools and colleges, reference books, maps, paintings, reproductions from classical works, and books for general reading on all subjects.

There is yet another factor which exerted no small influence toward the encouragement of the library movement in China, that is, the example and helping hand of the United States. Most of the leading modern librarians in China were trained in the library schools of the United States. Some of the mission colleges and universities were among the pioneers in organizing modern libraries and in setting an example for others to follow. Quite a few of the scientific societies and educational foundations such as the Smithsonian Institution and the Carnegie Foundation have made contributions of valuable publications to important libraries in China*).

*) **Kuo, P. W.** The evolution of the Chinese library and its relation to Chinese culture. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 20: 189-94, 1926.

Mr. **Kuo** is Director of the China Institute in America.

Library movement in China.

Since the Revolution of 1911, China has undergone a movement of change in politics, as well as in intellectual problems. The people have not only tried hard to shake off the yoke of despotism, but also fully determined to free themselves from the oppression of intellectual bondage. To-day at the bookstalls the translated works of Karl Marx, Kropotkin, Russell, Einstein and others are demanded like hot-cakes, while the critical essays on Chinese classics are welcomed by the scholars of the old type. The intellectual class has seen the failures of numerous reforms and come to the conclusion that the Chinese process of thought should be revolutionized.

Our present-day means of diffusing the new knowledge to the general masses are to introduce the use of a Chinese phonetic alphabet, and to publish books and periodicals in Peh Hua or colloquial language. In order to supply the Chinese intellect with fresh vital energy, famous scholars like John Dewey, Bertrand Russell and others have been invited to China to give lectures in most educational centres. Among institutions whose existence depends upon their ability to meet the public demand, the library is now face to face with rapidly changing conditions.

China, even to-day, is full of places for storing books. Although scholars continue to be interested in the editions of bygone dynasties, like the Sung or the Yuan or the Ming, and libraries know how to collect the valuable incunabula, yet the tendency is daily growing stronger in favour of converting the book-vault, jealously guarded by thick doors and heavy locks, into a living and attractive library. And during the last decade the new library movement has taken some strides.

On April 11, 1915, the Ministry of Education issued an order embodying eleven regulations which emphasize promotion, organisation and administration of libraries throughout the different provinces of the country. In order to add weight to the proclamation, the government turned the Imperial Library of the late Manchu dynasty at Peking into the Peking Metropolitan Public Library. Some of the districts have carried out the order, but others owing to lack of funds and fightings between military leaders are still in the period of preparation.

At present the Chinese libraries, excluding private ones, can be roughly divided into four main classes, namely, public libraries, college libraries, society libraries and special libraries.

In old days many provincial capitals kept large collections of books printed from wooden page-blocks. They were stored in some public hall for the use of scholars. Since 1913 these places have been turned into public libraries. Some of them are maintained by endowments, but the majority by the educational funds of the districts and are thus under the control of the Commissioner of Education of that province.

As to the administration: nearly all of these public libraries not only have adopted the closed shelf-system in reading rooms, but also allow no circulation for home use. Some of them require a small fee for admission, with the purpose of keeping away vagabonds and ruffians. Collecting charges for use of books in reading rooms is also practised in many a public library. Generally they have no recent publications, and there is much red-tape before admitting readers to the stackrooms.

During the last decade the mediæval idea of a library for a learned few has been broken down, and the intellectual kingdom has opened its gate for the plebians, who are daily getting bolder and wiser. The public library, they feel, should neither collect admission fee nor assess a charge for use of books. This public feeling has been duly recognised, hence the system of free public libraries has been introduced. Now many public libraries in the provincial capitals and large cities gradually either discard the policy of charging fees for admission and use of books, or establish free public libraries.

Generally a free public library in China is to allow the readers to use its collections without any charge, but not to permit them to draw out books for home use. In connection with these libraries there are play-grounds and children's reading rooms. In spite of the financial difficulties the free public libraries are better administered than public libraries. In addition to old Chinese books, they have newly published books on various subjects. The libraries open on Sundays just as on week days. Some of them close on Mondays, as a holiday to the members of the staff. There are about 88 organized public libraries and 291 free public libraries.

Almost every college in China now has a sort of library. Practically all the college libraries have two collections, one in Chinese, the other in foreign languages. All colleges maintained by the Chinese possess invariably larger collections of Chinese books, while educational institutions supported by missionaries and western

philanthropists always have more foreign books. Several reach the figure of about 100,000 volumes.

The books in foreign languages are generally classified according to the system of the Decimal Classification, and Chinese books according to four main divisions, viz., (1) Classics; (2) History; (3) Philosophy; (4) Belles-lettres. It is nearly unavoidable to have two paralleled systems of classifications used side by side in the same library. The nature of the old Chinese books is quite different from that of the western books. The ancient and comprehensive system of the above four main divisions with subdivisions is, therefore, inadequate for western books, as well as for the new Chinese books. For instance, there is no place for a book on such a subject as gasoline engines. On the other hand the headings provided by the western library systems are not comprehensive enough for the old Chinese books. So the difficult task of working out a system of classification suitable for the old Chinese books as well as the new is at present confronting Chinese librarians. Chinese librarians have attempted to expand and modify the system of the Decimal Classification to be suitable for the old Chinese books, as well the books in foreign languages.

About twelve college libraries now have their own library buildings, and several are trying hard to get enough funds for erection of modern library buildings. Among them the South-Eastern University, Nanking, and Tsing Hua University Library, Peking, are the only ones equipped with metal stacks. It is safe to assert that in every respect the college libraries in China are more efficiently administered, richer in collection and better in service than the public libraries.

The third type of libraries in China, generally known as society libraries, is now only in the period of dawning. They are now only a few in number, scattered in Peking and in cities along the coast. The annual expenditures and initial expenses of these libraries are secured either from donations, or from the funds of the respective societies. They are generally only used by the members of the society. The collection of books is, of course, similar to the nature of the parent society. The best-known society libraries are the library of the North China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society at Shanghai, the library of Science Society at Nanking, General Tsai-Soong-Poo Memorial Library at Peking, and the library of the Chinese Social and Political Science Association at Peking.

The last-named library belongs to the Chinese Social and Political Science Association, Peking. It was started largely by a group of "Returned Students", but its final success in 1918 depended upon the United States of America, the late Imperial Manchu family, and the Carnegie Endowment Corporation of New York. The first, through its worthy representative in Peking, Dr. Paul S. Reinsch, set apart the sum of taels 100,000 from the remitted fund of the Boxer Indemnity as initial and maintenance expenses of the library. The second kindly donated a centrally located site for the library building, and the Carnegie Corporation is to contribute every year about a thousand volumes in history, social and political sciences. I believe this is the first endowment of English books from that corporation to a library in China. The movement of founding society libraries is now slowly extending to the interior of the country.

In order to increase the efficiency and knowledge of the component factors of certain institutions or bureaux, special libraries have been founded. Again, cities like Peking, Shanghai and Canton are in the lead. There are six special libraries in the Capital, namely, the Library of the Bureau of Geological Survey under the Ministry of Agriculture, the Library of the Ministry of Communication, the Library of the Ministry of Education, the Library of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Library of the Supreme Court and the Library of the Bureau of Codification.

Their collections are naturally along the lines of their respective spheres. Only the members of these ministries have the privilege of using the libraries. The Imperial system of classifying the books into classics, history, philosophy and belles-lettres is adopted in shelving the Chinese books. The collections in foreign languages are roughly grouped according to subjects. Generally no books can be loaned for home use.

In Shanghai there are two very interesting special libraries, one under the Chinese General Chamber of Commerce, and the other established and maintained by the Commercial Press.

In spite of the constant political troubles in Canton, a special library for the use of educators was founded in January, 1922, by the Canton authorities. It has two parallel collections of books, one in Chinese and the other in foreign languages, chiefly on education and general reference. It acts as a laboratory for the short term library school in Canton. The administration is up to date, and this library intends to be the model library in the province of Kwangtung.

Since the gradual disappearance of the old idea regarding the librarian as only a page to the scholars, the beginning of demanding trained librarians has been on foot. Hence library schools in one form or another have been inaugurated to give courses in library science and administration.

The Boone University at Wuchang, Hupeh, now known as Central China University, is the first institution in China to introduce a regular curriculum of library science. It gives a three years' course and admits only students of sophomore standing. Many young librarians now working in different libraries all over the country are the products of the Central China University Library School.

In the summer of 1920, the Peking Teachers' College opened the first library summer school. It was a great surprise to all that the enrolment numbered seventy-eight men and women. Most of these were the librarians of various libraries in different provinces, sent up to attend the summer school.

In the spring of 1922 a short term course of library science was introduced in Canton by the Provincial Educational Commission. This apprentice course of three weeks was under the authority of the Kwangtung civil governor, who asked all the schools above the middle school to send an instructor or a staff-member to the capital to attend the lectures. The school was opened on March 27th and attended by sixty-five representatives from various high schools in the province.

In order to accelerate the library movement, a Committee of Library Education and Development was organized under the auspices of the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education. In July 1922, at Tsinanfu, Shantung, the librarians of the principal educational institutions came together to discuss the many problems related to the question of launching a nation-wide library movement. More than ten resolutions were passed, and a few of the most important ones have been carried out. One of them was to urge the metropolitan cities of each province to form local library associations, and to organize a national library association. Within the last three years, nine local library associations were organized, and the Library Association of China was inaugurated in Peking on June 3rd, 1925.

The Government appropriated a sum of \$ 5,000 to the newly formed national library association as initial expenses. Besides the task of compiling bibliographies and editing pamphlets on library administration and economy, it at present issues a bi-monthly bulletin

and a quarterly library journal. Due to financial difficulty, it is not in a position to carry out many projects at once.

As the writer reviews the situation of the Chinese libraries, the progress during the last ten years has been a slow but steady one in spite of many difficulties; as civil fightings between different war-lords, famines and other calamities. If the educators and social workers will actively support a library movement in China, its result will be immeasurably great. True democracy cannot be attained unless the bulk of the people can utilize the printed material with easy access*).

Library service in Japan.

Of course you do not expect any considerable libraries in the ancient time when there were so few written things in our country; but the Un-tei, the Home of Papyrus, established by one Isonokami Yakatsugu, a high official in the reign of the Emperor Konin, about 775 A.D., is looked upon as the foundation of our libraries. This library collected Chinese philosophy books and admitted any student who might apply to consult them. By and by some others followed; however, most of these were not popular institutions, some being archives of government documents, others private collections of noblemen.

Down in the middle age, when learning was preserved in the hands of Buddhist priests, several churches, especially cathedrals, put up libraries, but these were used mostly by priests themselves.

In the modern age many collections of books and pictures were preserved by the Han (clans) or by individuals under the name of Bunko (libraries). To contribute to the study and training of the Samurai (warrior class) in Confucianism was their chief concern.

After the restoration of Meiji, 1868, the Department of Education established, for the first time, a library in 1872. This was the origin of the present Imperial Library. Regulations were made in 1881 with regard to the establishment and abolition of public libraries; and in 1899 an ordinance relating to libraries was issued, by which the establishment of libraries by local corporations or by

*) **Tai, D. C.** Library movement in China. The librarian and book world, 15: 364-69, 1926.

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individuals was encouraged. Thence-forward libraries began to multiply until in March of 1923 they numbered altogether 2,389; one being a government institution; 1,608, public; and 1,175 of private establishment.

The Imperial Library, which is the only library established by the government, was opened in 1872. Since then there has been a continuous development, especially during the past twenty-five years, to keep pace with the progress of education in the country. Its scope has been greatly extended, and its position much improved, so that it is now the most complete library in all Japan. The late I. Tanaka, director, who was a student of Charles A. Cutter, contributed largely to the building up of it. The books in the Library, as shown by the returns of March, 1926, number 529,062 volumes of Japanese and Chinese books; and 108,874 volumes of foreign books, making a total of 637,936 volumes. The number of readers in one year was 383,676, giving an average of 1,180.5 per day.

The public and private libraries number over 2,783. Being scattered over various parts of the country as auxiliary organs of education, they contribute much to the diffusion of knowledge. Among the best equipped libraries are the Library of Osaka, the Library of Yamaguchi, Hibiya Library of Tokyo, Ohashi Library, and the Library of Nagoya. Of these libraries, some establish communication with other smaller libraries in the neighborhood and circulate their books periodically; and some, taking advantage of the summer vacation, lend books on the subjects of general education to the elementary schools in their districts for the children to read. On the other hand, there are some libraries that are not open to the public, but are used only by the scholars, and most of them are remarkable for their special collections. The Oriental Library in Tokyo, and the Ohara Social Problem Research Institute Library in Osaka are noteworthy.

Schools that afford higher courses have their own library to help teachers and students. Many such libraries have been thrown open to the public in recent years. Of these the most complete was the one attached to the Tokyo Imperial University, which, however, was destroyed by the recent earthquake, and is now on its way to reconstruction. Kyoto Imperial University has another, containing 500,136 volumes, of which 265,822 are Japanese and Chinese books, and 214,314 foreign.

The Japanese Library Association was established as Nippon-Bunko-kyokwai in 1892, that is, thirty-three years ago, by the

workers in public and private libraries in Tokyo with the object of making it an investigating as well as social organization. It has accomplished much as a pure learned society, while its practical social services have been still greater. It has made various efforts for the betterment of the existing libraries, and for propaganda for the need of more libraries. It has made several representations to the government for its cause. It is enlightening its members with the journal that is issued as its organ. It holds short courses and gives lectures in the view of preparing new workers. It has published the *Library primer* (Toshokwanshoshiki), putting forth the principles of library work. It publishes select lists of new books to serve as guides in book selection. It holds its annual conferences in Tokyo and some other places with a view to awakening the library spirit. Its rules for cataloguing Japanese and Chinese books aim at unifying the cataloguing methods in the country. And lastly, as a member of the International Bibliographical Society of Belgium, it is sharing in this international work. The late Marquis Yorimichi Tokugawa, after he was installed as the president in 1913, did much for the cause of the society. At present its members number over 2,000. Since 1915 it has established branches in several localities throughout the country.

In view of the increasing demand for library workers, the Department of Education inaugurated a library course in 1921. It is housed for the present in the Imperial Library. The course is completed in one year, commencing in April. It admits yearly about twenty-five students, who should be graduates from middle schools or girls' high schools. Library methods, book arts, and some historical and educational topics are taught, with practice work during the last two months. The sixth class is now going on. The demands for the graduates have always proved greater than the supply*).

Some libraries of Japan.

The library movement; its history. In 1872 Shoseki-Kwan (Bookhouse) was established in the Department of Education by the Bureau of Museums. This is the origin of the present Imperial Library. In the following year Shusho-In (Collected Book-house)

*) **Matsumoto, Kiichi.** Libraries and Library work in Japan. A. L. A. Bulletin, 20: 242-43, 1926.

was also started in Kyoto. This was the earliest library opened to the public. Shortly thereafter the government educational authorities acknowledged the necessity of establishing public libraries in order to facilitate and promote the work of education. Therefore, in 1881, the regulations were drawn up concerning the establishment of libraries. In 1899 the library law was issued for the first time. It authorizes prefectures, counties, towns, villages, or any body, public or private, to establish public libraries at their own expense. The librarians or assistants of a public library are appointed by the governor of the district, and their treatment is similar to that of school instructors of Hannin rank. Some amendments were made to elevate the standing of the public libraries in 1906.

According to the statistics of 1923 the number of libraries as the end of March was 2,390; including one government, 1,420 public, and 969 private establishments. This shows an increase of 191 in the former, and 969 of the latter over the preceding year. The total number of volumes contained in these libraries was 5,939,821; the average number for each public library being 2,500 and for each private library, 2,900. The total annual increase was 288,000 volumes. The proportion of foreign books of the total number of volumes was six per cent in public libraries and five per cent in private libraries. Among the best organized and most prosperous of the larger public libraries are those of Tokyo, Osaka, Niigata, Nagoya, Kyoto, Kobe and Nagasaki.

The Imperial Library, the only government library, situated in Ueno Park of Tokyo, is the largest in Japan. It was established in April, 1872, as mentioned above. It has undergone many changes, and each time was improved and enlarged. In March, 1906, the present institution was completed, after careful study of library plans in Europe and America ...

Though far smaller in scale, it is like the Library of Congress of the United States. One copy of every book published is officially requested to be sent to this Library. Many of the staff members of this Library as well as those of Imperial University Libraries are appointed to positions in prefectural libraries ...

The Hibiya Library, founded in 1906 in Hibiya Park, nearly the center of Tokyo City, is the leading and most active public library in Japan. Its system of library work, particularly the form of administering branch libraries, has been adopted by many other city libraries. It has twenty branch libraries, twelve of which having

been burned in the disastrous earthquake of September 1, 1923 are being rebuilt or opened in temporary barracks...

The fact that literature and language hold the highest place in the number of books read in public libraries in Japan is true also in other countries. But to our interest we see that books of foreign literature and language are read more than books of Japanese literature... Next to literature and language books on engineering and industry are most read. It is significant to know that men of ability in engineering and industry are wanted most by the society of present Japan.

At the end of the year 1923 this Library contained 89,619 volumes of which 6,698 were foreign books.

In school education the library is an indispensable factor. Without its help no teaching can be carried out satisfactorily, especially in higher education. In Japan the Department of Education does not authorize colleges and universities unless they have adequate library facilities. So all schools, whether public or private, belonging to higher education have libraries of their own for the use of professors and students. Among them University Libraries are best equipped and organized.

The Tokyo Imperial University Library. It seems hardly necessary to dwell minutely on this University Library as it became well known to the world upon its tragic destruction and loss of books in the tremendous earthquake and fire of 1923. This caused also the ruin of libraries of other colleges and universities. However it is a great pleasure to be able to say that through international sympathy and co-operation it is being restored very rapidly... According to a report of the University it has already acquired 409,000 volumes, 362,000 of which are donations from many institutions of all parts of the world.

The Kyoto Imperial University Library, being in the old capital of Japan, has many old and rare Japanese and Chinese books, some of them deposited from old shrines and some by notable peers. The libraries of Tohoku Imperial University, Kushu Imperial University and Hokkaido Imperial University are all large collections. Of the nongovernment university libraries those of Wasedo, Keio, and Doshisha are the most famous and each has a large library.

In a general survey of the library world of Japan we see that all are struggling for advancement; yet handicapped with many obstacles. "Open the door and thou shalt be welcome" will be

an appropriate motto for them. An open door policy is the best for them now. The system of charging visitors an entrance fee must soon be abolished; and people allowed to have free access to the shelves and liberal privileges of home use. On the other hand library funds must be increased in order that collections may be enriched and library facilities improved. Moreover in these days when the library is destined to be a great social educator it is also necessary to promote professional training and improve the treatment of librarians sufficiently to attract able men to this field. In the long run success or failure, each, depend upon the man and not the card index or machinery of delivery*).

Public library service in England.

Looking backward over the library movement in Great Britain during rather more than seventy years we appreciate the vision, the enthusiasm, the energy, and the devotion of those who have given us a library service which, far as it may fall below the standards many of us envisage, gives rise to feelings of admiration for those who have striven to supply what we possess. The work of such men as William Ewart and Edward Edwards, the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, 1849, and the Public Libraries Act of 1850, for England and Wales, were the beginnings of a library system which today may serve all but three per cent of the population of those countries.

The first act authorised the establishment of public libraries in England and Wales in municipal boroughs only and the imposition of a rate of one-half penny in the pound (of rateable value) for their support. But it was not permissible to expend any part of the product of such rate on the purchase of books or periodicals. This restriction was not removed until 1855 when an amending act raised the limit on the library rate to one penny in the pound, extended the powers to apply to towns having population of over 5,000, and authorised expenditure on the provision of literature. These two acts remained the principal statutory measures for England and Wales until 1892 when a consolidating Act came into operation. No further important change was made until 1919 when

*) **Ohsa, Miyogo.** On the libraries in Japan. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 20: 244-51, 1926.
Mr. **Ohsa** is librarian of the Dairen Library, Dairen, Manchuria.

the Public Libraries Act of that year abolished the rate limit, and conferred on County Councils the power to provide libraries in their areas. This act might almost be described as the Magna Charta for public libraries in England and Wales.

In Scotland, to which country different legislation applies, the position is much the same. The first public libraries act for that country came into operation in 1853, and in the following year it was amended to authorise the levying of a rate of one penny in the pound for the support of libraries. The principal act, however, was not obtained until 1887, after which no material addition to legislation was made until 1918. In that year The Education (Scotland) Act gave to Education Authorities (except in the four largest cities) power to provide books for adults as well as for young persons, and no rate limit was imposed in making the necessary provision. Again, in 1920 The Public Libraries (Scotland) Act extended the rate limit to three pence in the pound for burghs, so within the two years 1918 and 1920 rural districts became library areas and burghs were given liberty to provide more fittingly for their library needs.

On the basis of these various provisions public libraries in England and Wales, and in Scotland, are in a more favorable position than at any previous time. Urban areas enjoy a freedom to support their libraries in a satisfactory manner, and it is now possible for the first time to provide adequately for the literary needs of the rural population. Some points of difference between the library powers for these countries are worthy of note.

Whilst in England and Wales the library authorities for urban and rural areas are respectively the town councils and the county councils, in Scotland, though the town councils provide and control libraries in the burghs, the education authorities are invested with library powers for county areas. In the urban areas of England and Wales the councils are not under statutory obligation to appoint members from outside of their own number to serve on library committees; but in Scotland such authorities *must* appoint for service on library committees one half of their number from persons who are not members of the burgh councils. In England and Wales the county councils must act through their education committees in providing and administering libraries. In Scotland the education authority is an *ad hoc* body having full powers to establish and maintain libraries.

In furtherance of endeavours to improve provision and to promote adult education, the President of the Board of Education two years ago appointed a Departmental Committee "to inquire into the adequacy of the library provision already made under the Public Libraries Acts and the means of extending and completing such provision throughout England and Wales, regard being had to the relation of the libraries conducted under those acts to other public libraries, and to the general system of national education".

Obviously the duty of this committee was to make an exhaustive study of the whole question of existing library provision and to make recommendations regarding its possible improvement . . .

What changes may ensue it is impossible to say with any degree of certainty. We know, however, what is necessary to give the countries concerned a really efficient National Library Service. The links in the chain are the county libraries, the libraries of urban areas, and the Central Library for Students — an institution peculiar to the United Kingdom — with the specialist libraries with which it has working arrangements. All of these, except the Central Library and its associated libraries, are public institutions supported by funds arising from local rates. By exercising their powers sufficiently the authorities responsible may go far towards making their libraries capable of meeting the ordinary needs of their respective spheres. It is otherwise with the Central Library. This Library, founded in 1916, is a purely voluntary organization, maintained chiefly with funds provided by the Carnegie United Trust. Its function is "not only to ensure that all *bona fide* students coming under its notice shall be helped in their studies if they are unable to obtain the use of the necessary books elsewhere, but also to stimulate and develop higher study on the part of those, for the most part isolated students, who, owing to the lack of book facilities and book guidance, have been content with a lower level of knowledge than they are capable of acquiring".

Thus, the Central Library supplements the resources of the county and many urban libraries, but the practice governing such aid is designed to meet reasonable needs for books which cannot be supplied from local service. In this endeavor it has been exceedingly successful.

Assuming that the local authorities develop their libraries as suggested and the Central Library is maintained more liberally than has been the case hitherto, a greatly improved service will result. This, however, is not enough. There must be cooperation

on systematic lines which will enable libraries in each locality to draw upon the combined resources of the libraries grouped within definite areas. It has been proposed that by recognition of the largest public libraries within those areas as Regional Centres they should also become feeders and clearing houses for the libraries within their group; that by the cooperation of groups of libraries round such centres duplication of books infrequently required should be avoided; and that money so saved should be devoted to the purchase of either additional books or of additional copies of works much in demand. Part of the savings might also be applied in the provision of more of the unusual books at the regional libraries, which in return for such accessions would lend freely to the small libraries cooperating. Tentative cooperative schemes partly on these lines are now in operation in several districts, notably in Leicestershire and Lancashire, and these experiments are being watched with close attention.

Neighboring regional centres would cooperate with each other, and the Central Library, with its stock of unusual books, would supplement the regional libraries in various ways. Many specialist libraries are already drawn upon by the Central Library for unusual books and periodicals desired for research and similar purposes. These are lent as required for use at libraries throughout the country. What is much needed is that the value of the Central Library as an ultimate source of supply should be suitably recognised; that it should be more liberally supported; and that it should become a public lending library maintained out of national funds . . .

Under such an arrangement it is believed that many other specialist and semi-public libraries would enter into relations with a national central library, and through it make their stocks available to a wider circle of readers.

In Great Britain we are fortunate in having legislation which makes great advances possible. In addition to the local libraries for rural and urban areas we may hope to obtain from the Central Library, more generously financed and liberally equipped, many of the functions of the state libraries and the state library commissions of America. As one of its activities some of us hope that a Central Cataloguing Bureau and Information Agency also will be established in the near future. This would be a long step towards completing effective service for the whole country. Our problems differ in many respects from those confronting libraries in America. We have neither the immigrant population nor the vast distances to deal with. But,

in the main, we have the same ends in view, and though our financial resources are strictly limited, we believe it will be possible in the not distant future to bring about a National Library Service to which all the developments referred to are intended to lead*).

Outline of library service in England.

The following is intended to be, and cannot be more than the baldest and most condensed extract of facts relating to the birth, growth, and present position of the public library system in England.

In the eighteenth century a wide-spread movement arose for establishing libraries in connection with churches, stimulated by an Act of Parliament of 1709 — the first public library legislation. In 1753 came the British Museum, which, through its reports, influenced the Parliamentary Commission on Free Libraries which sat 1849—1851.

Subscription libraries — lyceums and athenaeums — came as early as 1725 and were the models of the mechanics' institutes of the early nineteenth century. The rapid growth of modern industrialism stimulated and developed these — the immediate forerunners of the present public libraries. In 1849 there were some 400, possessing three to four hundred thousand volumes, with annual circulation of a million.

The time had come, and in that year a Committee of the House of Commons considered libraries for the public and evolved the first Public Libraries Act of 1850 . . .

The Act applied only to municipal boroughs, required a two-thirds majority at a poll of burgesses, and limited the rate to one half-penny in the pound . . . In 1855 a further Act removed this anomaly and increased the rate limitation to one penny. It remained the principal Act until 1892.

Adoption of the Act was, at first, disappointingly slow . . . In thirty-six years from 1850 only 133 localities had taxed themselves. In 1887, the year of Queen Victoria's jubilee, many districts were inspired to establish libraries as memorials of the great queen, and progress became more rapid. A great stimulus was given about

*) Pitt, S. A. Some possible developments of public library practice in Great Britain. A. L. A. Bulletin, 20: 228-31, 1926.

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1900 when Andrew Carnegie extended his munificent benefactions from the United States to Scotland and England. In 1910 the number of adoptions had risen to 556 — this decade showing the greatest activity in the history of the movement. The public library had arrived, other benefactors were attracted, the interest of the general public was aroused and the institutions became popular. The compulsory Education Act of 1870 had provided the readers, and the libraries, formerly "free", now became "public" — a deeper distinction than is at first apparent.

Then came the Great War, and from its grievous effects the libraries of this country have not yet recovered. The altered economic conditions will deeply affect them for many years.

Briefly, however, it would appear that full machinery now exists for library service of a complete and comprehensive nature throughout the country on the following lines:

(1) The village library with a small permanent stock and a floating stock exchanged at intervals from the county stock.

(2) The city or borough library, mainly for its residents but used also in collaboration with the county scheme.

(3) The county library, a reservoir for all its rural areas, supplying and exchanging with borough and parish libraries in its area.

(4) The Central Library for Students, at present somewhat immature, but capable of development for use by all libraries for special requirements.

(5) The state libraries.

Although somewhat outside the scope of this short review, it should not be forgotten that the United Kingdom is very rich in other semi-public libraries, which are generally available to students, and supplement considerably the books at call.

Although in some respects British libraries must defer to the libraries of the United States and acknowledge the superior results of the higher estimation by its citizens and their greater generosity, still it is claimed that taken as a whole the population of our islands have now at their service a general library provision not surpassed by any state.

A most important step was taken in 1924 in the appointment by Parliament of a Departmental Committee to enquire into the whole question of public service. The Committee has recently finished its sittings, after an exhaustive survey, but its report is unfortunately not yet issued, though soon anticipated. It will

undoubtedly mark the commencement of a new era and a fresh impulse in the work, and radically affect the future. It may be hazarded that its general conclusions will be directed towards the coordination of public library work with and as part of the work of national education, on the principle that the duty of a state to educate its citizens does not cease with the school but continues throughout their lives*).

British Museum, 1906.

The foundation of the British Museum library, when compared with that of several of the principal libraries in Europe, is the creation of a recent date. It is even surpassed in age by the two university libraries of our country. The Bodleian Library celebrated its tercentenary in 1902. The University Library of Cambridge slumbered peacefully, almost in total neglect, for many years, but acquired an abiding vitality when George I. in an unusual fit of generosity, bestowed upon it in 1714 the collection of Bishop Moore. The British Museum was born in 1753, when Parliament passed an Act for the purchase of the museum or collection of Sir Hans Sloane and of the Harleian collection of manuscripts. The national Treasury was devoid of funds, and the purchase-money of £ 20,000 — a small proportion of its value — asked for by the Sloane trustees had to be raised by lottery. Raised it was, but with the usual accompaniments of waste and licence ...

For long years after its opening the accommodation for readers was very limited, and the supply of books went but a very little way towards satisfying the desire of the student. Dr. Johnson preferred to read in the King's library at Buckingham House; there is indeed no trace in his life that he ever entered the rooms at Bloomsbury for the purpose of study. Boswell, indulging in his accustomed vein of complacent satisfaction, broke out in 1780 with the reflection that "in London I suppose we may find every book that can be found anywhere"; but the truth was far removed from this patriotic outburst of exultation ...

Charles Lamb, when desirous of finding congenial occupation for his spare hours, after his retirement from the drudgery of the

*) **Pacy, Frank.** Public libraries in England. A. L. A. Bulletin, 20 : 221-23, 1926.
Mr. Pacy is Honorary Secretary of the Library Association (England).

India House, hit upon the happy plan of making extracts from the stores of old English dramatic poets in the British Museum for insertion in the gossiping volumes of William Hone. He sat for hours in the "princely apartments" of Montague House, where he had the range of a nobleman's library, with the librarian as your friend. "Nothing can exceed the courteousness and attentions of the gentleman who has the chief direction of the reading rooms here"; that note of generous concern for the student has survived to the present day . . . When Lamb adds the sentence that "you have scarce to ask for a volume before it is laid before you", he describes what the official of the present day is unable to accomplish. Books ever on the increase, have required the construction of further apartments more and more removed from the great dome of the central readingroom and the greater distance that the attendant has to travel does not allow him to perform such a feat of celerity. The most willing effort on his behalf cannot keep time or space within the bounds of Charles Lamb's day.

An intelligent traveller from Germany, who visited England in 1765 and sent home to his inquiring countrymen a narrative of what attracted his observation, put on record his opinion that the printed books were the weakest part of the collection. Very imperfect, it must be confessed, seem to have been the attempts made for many years to remedy this defect. A spirit of lethargy apparently fastened on the officials who were responsible for the management of the library during the first sixty years of its life. They did not even exercise to the full the powers they enjoyed under the provisions of the Copyright Act. Perhaps they experienced in carrying out the provisions of the Act the same irritation among the publishers that Panizzi felt in the days of his responsibility, and unlike him their sense of public duty did not override their feelings of disinclination. Nor was Parliament profuse in its grants to the Museum during this period; a few thousands only were doled out at intervals, and these were bestowed with great reluctance. Most of the purchases that were made before 1815 were paid for out of the convenient bequest of £ 7,000 by Arthur Edwards, first-major of the second troop of Horse Guards, who died in 1743. He left it, subject to a life-interest, towards building a house in which the Cottonian Library might safely be kept; but the bequest did not lapse until subsequent dispositions rendered the expenditure in that way unnecessary, and as this fund, with accumulations, was expended in purchases of books and antiquities, it made up in some measure

for the stinginess of Parliament. Great energy has been shown during the last forty years in repairing the neglect of the custodians in past ages, but even now the lacunae in English literature, from 1760 onwards, are both numerous and important ...

In 1762 the king purchased for £ 300 the vast collection of Civil War Tracts, about 30,000 articles bound in 2,000 volumes, which George Thomason, a London bookseller under the Commonwealth, had brought together. Anyone who has seen, even for a moment, a bound volume of these dumpy quarto tracts will never lose the recollection of their elaborate title-pages, with the lengthy citations in many cases from the Scriptures, and with the date of purchase written thereon by the accurate and unwearied collector ...

In 1766 the library of the industrious Thomas Birch came to the British Museum by bequest, and at his death in 1779 Garrick left to it that collection of plays which Charles Lamb enjoyed to the full ... Partly by gift in 1790, and partly by bequest in 1799, there came to Great Russell Street the books of Sir William Musgrave, whose name has recently been revived in the minds of English pedigree-hunters through the publication in the issues of the Harleian Society of the biographical Memoranda which the laborious reading of a lifetime had enabled him to amass ...

These additions, valuable as they were, were dwarfed soon after the accession of George IV. by the transfer to the Museum of the King's library from Buckingham Palace ... The nucleus of the collection was bought from Joseph Smith, the British Consul at Venice, in 1765; but with successive years the library was largely augmented by the purchases abroad, as well as in this country, which were made by George III. on the advice of his illegitimate relation, Sir Francis Barnard. The Italian library of Sir Richard Colt Hoare, who had spent five years in ransacking the stores of Italian *cognoscenti*, was given in 1825; and two years later there was added the botanical library, about 16,000 volumes, of Sir Joseph Banks, a library familiar to scientific students throughout the world by the classified catalogue which the skill of Jonas Dryander constructed.

A very happy life was that of Mr. Thomas Grenville, the most popular member of that family of commanding influence. He lived to a good old age, softened by the attentions of his friends, and a lucrative sinecure which he enjoyed for many years enabled him to gratify his desire for valuable books ... Mr. Grenville's books are not, however, available for the reader, unless the work asked for

should not be contained in the general collection, or the special copy which Mr. Grenville bequeathed should happen to possess a variation from the rest of the edition. When the volumes were brought to the Museum they were counted, and the total was 20,239. They were all in admirable condition, the beauty of the bindings being especially noticeable, and it was stated that Mr. Grenville had expended upon them no less than £ 54,000.

Down to this date the library of the British Museum was rather an aggregation of gifts from private persons than a collection that had been formed of purchases by the State; and as many of the donors were possessed by similar tastes, or felt the necessity of buying the works of the popular author of the day, a considerable number of duplicates encumber the shelves. A second copy of a work in some demand is often convenient, and moving stories have been told of the satisfaction of two enthusiasts, coming from remote parts of England on the same day to consult the same book, at finding that the possession of duplicates enabled each of them to have a copy at his desk.

One more collection, that of Mr. Henry Spencer Ashbee, remains to be mentioned. He was an Englishman who could speak and write in French with the accent and the skill of the Parisian, and the books which he loved most were the creations of our neighbors across the channel ...

Nearly thirty years elapsed after the foundation of the library before a printed catalogue of its contents was published. It came out in 1787 in two folio volumes, and its chief compiler was the Rev. Samuel Ayscough, one of the most industrious cataloguers and indexers that the British Museum has produced. Another space of thirty years passed away, and a more extended catalogue was found necessary. This was in seven octavo volumes, and it was issued between the years 1813 and 1819 under the editorial care of Sir Henry Ellis and the Rev. H. H. Baber ...

A great awakening came with the advent of Panizzi, who was brought into the British Museum by the influence of Lord Brougham on April 27, 1831. This Italian refugee from petty tyranny, this foreigner, as vulgar opponents dubbed him, was instinct with energy, and it was not long before he endeavored to impress upon the various sections of the Museum the ideas which were seething in his mind ... Half the English men of letters were at one time or other against him and his plans ...

Nevertheless Panizzi had his failures as well as his triumphs,

and his chief trouble arose over the new printed catalogue of the books. In 1839 he gathered around him the principal officials of the library, and with their co-operation drew up the famous ninety-one rules, under which the compilation of the new catalogue was to be undertaken. They were sanctioned by the trustees on July 13, 1839, and printed on July 15, 1841. Some fifty years later, i. e. in 1900, they were codified into thirty-nine, and were somewhat simplified; but in substance they are still intact, nor is it likely that rules framed by such competent hands will undergo material alteration in the future . . . In 1881 the trustees resolved upon the production of a printed catalogue, and the officials at the Treasury were persuaded to provide the requisite funds. Nearly twenty years were spent on the labour, and in the autumn of 1900 the last volume of the old manuscript catalogue was discarded for its printed substitute. It was estimated by that time that the printed volumes contained close on 4,500,000 entries. The new system meets with universal approval, the condensation in space and the relief to the eye in consulting a printed catalogue proving a great boon to the hurried student. Three sets of the catalogue are always kept in hand for the necessary purposes of expansion and revision, twenty volumes or so of those in the reading room being displaced almost daily for those of the same lettering which have been brought up to date in the innermost recesses of the building. The volumes of the catalogue are ever on the increase, and so are the students who use them . . .

What, then, was the system for the construction of this gigantic undertaking which was laid down by Panizzi and his assessors in their ninety-one rules? It was decreed that the entries in the catalogue should, as far as possible, be arranged under the names of the authors, and that under each author the various works should be set out in strictly alphabetical order by the first word other than an article. This was the plan imposed by authority in 1841, and this was the system adhered to down to a recent date. But of late years the trained minds responsible for the formation of the catalogue have realized from bitter experience that in the case of authors of European fame, with many works of their own composition reaching into incessant editions, and with numerous treatises written about them by literary students throughout the world, further subdivision had become essential. The modification in the existing system, which was thereupon introduced, was received with great favor . . .

The names of English authors present, as a rule, but slight difficulty either for the cataloguer or the consulter of the catalogue. But in few instances, and those not without importance, the plan in force in the construction of the catalogue of our national collections has not met with universal approval among English librarians ...

Such considerations as these must not blind us to the fact that a great work is being done at the library of the British Museum. We may confidently dwell with pride on the efficiency of its administration ...

All classes in society are represented there. The man of means who reads for instruction, without thought of publication, some work which he cannot get elsewhere; the student engaged on some laborious research in history or bibliography; the writer of articles or paragraphs for the London or provincial papers; the poverty-stricken graduate engaged in "devilling" for some literary employer of affluence — there are samples of all these kinds within its walls. Since the reading-room was opened fifty years ago, one section of readers, that of women-students, has increased far beyond expectation. If the number of women working at the Museum is augmented in the next twenty years to the same extent as it has advanced in the last, their number will exceed that of the male students*).

Libraries and the Century in America.

Retrospect and prospect are the order of the day in this opening year of the twentieth century. In no relation of public activity, outside the advance resulting from scientific discoveries and mechanical inventions, has there been more remarkable progress during the nineteenth century than in the library field. While the nation has grown from 5,300,000 to 76,300,000 population, library development has outspeeded even those extraordinary proportions. The library history of the century divides itself into three periods, the Dark Ages of the first half century, the Middle Age of the third quarter, and the modern period, 1876-1900. The transition from the first period to the second is to be noted in Prof. Jewett's work about 1850 and the library conference of 1853; that from the second

*) The British Museum library and its catalogue. *Edinburgh review*, 203: 417-36, 1900.

to the third in the organization of the American Library Association in 1876, and the Government report and the beginning of library journalism in the same year. In 1800 the 29 "social" or general libraries known to have existed in 1776 had become 49, with approximately 80,000 volumes; and, including special and unrecorded libraries, it is safe to say that outside of private or school collections less than 100 libraries existed in the United States a century ago. In 1850 Jewett recorded, outside of the district schools 644 libraries aggregating 2,144,069 volumes. In that first half-century libraries were chiefly of private origin and organization, and the only library legislation of real significance was that based upon the New York school library laws of 1835, permitting each school district to spend \$ 20 for establishing and \$ 10 for maintaining a free public library, and of 1838, appropriating \$ 55,000 a year for purchases for such libraries. Jewett's report recorded 9505 such libraries with 1,552,332 volumes, which seems an enormous over-estimate; certainly, these libraries soon after rapidly disappeared, unused, into attics and remote corners. Peterborough in New Hampshire in 1833, the pioneer, and Orange and Wayland in Massachusetts in 1846 and 1848, had established free public town libraries without warrant of law, before the New Hampshire act of 1849 (followed by the English act of 1850) and that of 1851 in Massachusetts authorized local taxation for free public library purposes, and in 1852 the Boston Public Library was definitely established after eleven years of discussion. From then down progress was made steadily until the definite beginning of the new movement in 1876. The government report of 1876 recorded 3682 libraries of 300 volumes or more, numbering 12,276,964 volumes, besides over 1,500,000 pamphlets; and the latest Government registration scheduled for 1896, 7191 such libraries, with 34,596,258 volumes.

It is safe to place the number at the close of 1900 at 8000 libraries, of 300 volumes or more (possibly 10,000 including minor ones), with 40,000,000 volumes, with realty and endowments know to exceed \$ 60,000,000 and probably reaching well towards \$ 100,000,000. At least six library buildings exceeded \$ 1,000,000 cost. Our national library, housed at a cost for building and ground of \$ 6,950,000, has just passed the 1,000,000 volume mark (including pamphlets), and has for the year 1901 an appropriation of \$ 513,553. The Boston Public Library, foremost of municipal libraries the world over, cost for building and ground above \$ 2,500,000, has over 750,000 volumes, receives \$ 255,000 or more from the city and

the income from \$ 273,000 of endowment, and circulated in 1899-1900, 1,251,451 volumes on 63,695 "live" cards of borrowers. The Philadelphia Free Library, but seven years old, recorded in its last report the banner circulation of 1,758,851 volumes. These figures are significant indeed.

But the figures showing quantity, are far outdone by the facts showing quality, of development. The library and the librarian both have been among the best illustrations in the century of Herbert Spencer's definition of development by differentiation, from the homogenous to the heterogeneous in function. A generation ago the chief library type was the "mercantile", or subscription library, often with its associated lectures and classes, of which a surviving example is the Brooklyn Library, with its alcoved hall, its printed catalogue which is a monument of the personal handiwork of its former librarian, its guiding principle of purchasing enough copies of a popular and proper book to meet its subscribers' immediate demands, its few undifferentiated assistants, and its general policy of *laissez faire*. The type of to-day is found in the free public library of scores of cities — the largest in Boston, the newest in Providence — in whose huge and highly organized building the great stack room, allowing for indefinite future development, and the adjoining delivery room, are but one among the numerous features. There are provisions for interior administration, the executive offices of the chief librarian, the order, catalogue, and shelf departments, and perhaps a printing office and a bindery; in external relations reference and special libraries and reading rooms for periodicals, newspapers, patents, documents, manuscripts, prints, music, etc., etc. There are provisions for children, perhaps for the blind, perhaps for artisans, with librarians specially equipped for each division of books and for each kind of readers, and the all-knowing "information clerk"; and finally dynamo room, ventilating apparatus, complicated delivery machinery, photographic dark rooms, lecture auditoriums, perhaps kitchen, lunch and rest rooms for the staff, public wash rooms, and even bicycle depositories — all this but the central ganglion of an outreaching system. There are in Boston 31 branch libraries, delivery or deposit stations, and numerous relations with engine houses, public schools, city institutions, in connection with the "travelling library" system. For this highly organized work all sorts of mechanical helps are now provided; architects make a specialty of library buildings, constructing from within outward to meet the librarian's requirements. An enormous

business has been developed by the Library Bureau and competing agencies in supplying shelves, cases, cards, etc., and even specially designed library furniture can be had.

The librarian, no longer the skipper of a dory in which he pulls an oar himself, but the commander of a hugh steamer or the commodore of a great fleet, must in the larger libraries be an executive of the first rank, truly a member of the executive profession, with little time to handle or read a book himself, with ability to organize, administer, and direct a physical plant, a collection of books, a distributing system, and a regimental staff. Under him are officers, librarians, cataloguers, and attendants of various ranks, abilities, and functions, some dealing with the book and others with the reader. The trained librarians, members of such a staff, recognize themselves as belonging to the library profession, alongside the profession of the teacher and the older professions of law, medicine, and theology. For their training there are now four library schools — the first organized at Columbia in 1887 — having already over 500 graduates, and numerous library classes.

The development of librarianship as a profession has led to, and has in turn been promoted by, the association and organization of librarians into national and state associations and local clubs, which have taken rank with the kindred educational and other professional organizations. The American Library Association, organized at Philadelphia in 1876, had an attendance at its latest conference, held significantly in Canada, of 450, and its membership has reached 800. There are 30 other library associations state or local, and the New York State Association has now established a "library week" at a summer headquarters. The state librarians have their own national association. The missionary spirit has led to the establishment of state library commissions now in 17 states; and many states have library legislation, providing in some cases for donations from the state, perhaps to the extent of \$100 worth of books for the establishment of new libraries or the increase of others. The travelling library system, though but eight years old, extended into 42 states, reaching out to the smallest communities the benefits of culture.

The librarian is no longer a book-keeper, but a book-missionary. It is his duty to compel readers to come in. He stimulates demand by supply of books and facilities; his question is no longer how many books his library has on its shelves, but how many it circulates from

its shelves. Out of the half million dollar appropriations for the national library \$ 61,000 only is for purchases, and out of the quarter million of the Boston Public Library from \$ 25,000 to 35,000 goes for purchases — the chief expenditure being for the care and circulation of books. The librarian looks upon himself as the fellow worker with the teacher; he begins with the child, for the age limit in libraries has almost disappeared, and he continues educational work after the school period has closed. For the child he has sympathy as well as books; he is eyes to the blind; he shows the artisan that books are his best tools, and puts the drawing-board alongside the books. He will not only find the books for the reader but will tell him in what book to find the information he seeks, or find for him any information contained in books. His modern card-catalogue gives the clue to a book by author, title, class or subject, analyzes the contents of books and even indexes articles in periodicals. A "repertory" on the Brussels plan is beginning to complement the card-catalogue, showing what books are to be found in other libraries. He has at his service bibliographies and printed cards furnished by the Publishing Board of his association, as well as bulletins and special lists printed by his own and other libraries from time to time. If a book is not in his own library he will endeavor to borrow it from other libraries, far or near, for his reader. He goes out into the schools to make friends for his books among teachers and scholars. He fills with books the waste hours of men in engine houses and lighthouses; he sends travelling home libraries to give light in the dark places of tenement houses in the great cities. He is indeed the typical home missionary of the time, and the motto "The best reading for the largest number at the least cost" sums up excellently the moral, popular and economic relations of his work. To add the final word, librarianship has given a new profession for women; of the 53 members of the Columbia University Library staff, 48 are women, and where the librarian is spoken of as "he" it is to be read "she" nine times out of ten. Thus library progress, in answering the needs of the country, has contributed above all to the advancement of women.

The public in turn has appreciated keenly and amply the new relations of libraries. Massachusetts, the banner state, has public libraries in 343 of its 346 townships, for free use by the people, supported by public funds. In almost all the states, liberal appropriations are made by state, cities, or townships for library purposes. The library has also become *the* means by which men

of riches recognize through public benefactions their indebtedness to the public. It is estimated that approximately \$ 25,000,000 have been given to public library purposes in the new period of library development. Mr. Carnegie gave in one year over \$ 3,000,000 to library purposes, and his total gifts bid fair to reach \$ 10,000,000. Throughout the country library buildings stand as the memorials of public-spirited citizens or as the monument of those who have passed. The library almost more than the church, has become the people's temple, in which the rich and the poor meet together, as they meet in few other relations of modern life.

This is the record of libraries, in America, as the hand of the clock of time passes the century mark. What the twentieth century will bring forth, no prophet can foretell. It is difficult to imagine that the next hundred years can do more, if so much, in invention within the library field as has been done in the past twenty-five years. These past years have been those of pioneering; the years to come should be those of fruition. There is abroad a vast expectancy that the material development of the nineteenth century will be succeeded in the twentieth by a civic, social, and spiritual development, necessary indeed to correct and supplement the work of a material age. The triumph of machinery is to be followed by a triumph of man over machinery. To this possibility, and in this hope, no one is more alive than the librarian of to-day. He has developed a vast social machinery for the service of his fellow citizens; it will be his future mission to make sure that the machinery of the profession is subordinated to the large uses for which only it is of worth. Let us hope that one hundred years hence the recorder of progress will be able to say that in the progress of man during the twentieth century, the book, as brought by the librarian into the lives of the people, has accomplished the great work for which the librarian of the nineteenth century was the pioneer*).

American college libraries about 1850.

"It pleased God to stir up the heart of one Mr. Harvard (a godly Gentleman, and a lover of Learning there living amongst us)

*) **Bowker, R. R.** Libraries and the century in America: Retrospect and prospect. Library Journal, 26: 5-7, 1901.

For many years Mr. **Bowker** has been Publisher of the Library Journal.

to give the one halfe of his Estate (it being in all about £ 1700 towards the erecting of a College, and all his Library."

"I give these books for the founding of a college in this colony", said each of the little group of Connecticut clergymen as he laid his treasured folios upon the table in Mr. Russell's study.

In this manner were founded those "twin seats of learning" the two great New England universities, the origin of their present splendid libraries being coincident with their establishment as institutions of learning. And from that day to this the college and university libraries of the United States have largely followed the fortunes of their respective institutions, sharing in their poverty and their prosperity, and reflecting in varying degrees the character and tendencies of their instruction. Their history in full would be in many respects a repetition of much that belongs to the history of higher education in America — a subject already treated in general surveys and special monographs. The present sketch aims only at giving a summary view of library conditions in the colleges between the years 1850 and 1876. With present day conditions freshly in mind, it will serve to show what far reaching changes have occurred in the last thirty years.

In 1850 there were in the United States only five collections whose contents numbered over 50,000 volumes each, viz.: the Library of Congress, the Boston Athenaeum, the Philadelphia Library, and the libraries of Harvard and Yale. Yale's aggregate of 50,000 was only attained by including the separate students' libraries and those of the law and medical schools. The number of volumes in the college library proper was about 20,000. One hundred and twenty-six college libraries in thirty-two states possessed a total of 586,912 volumes, or 155,000 less than are now contained in the Harvard collection alone.

In New England only Harvard, Yale and Brown contained 20,000 or more volumes; Bowdoin had 13,000, but remained almost stationary during the next twenty years, having only 17,238 in 1872; Amherst, Colby, Dartmouth, Middlebury, Trinity, the University of Vermont, Wesleyan, and Williams each had less than 7,500 volumes in their respective libraries.

Columbia, the largest college library in New York state, possessed 12,740 volumes; Union and Hobart each had about 7,000; Colgate, Hamilton and the University of the City of New York less than 5,000 volumes each, Princeton had 9,000, and the University of Pennsylvania 5,000. Seven other Pennsylvania institution average

2,839, ranging from 5,050 volumes at Dickinson to Lafayette's meager 402. Georgetown College had 25,000 volumes, and St. Mary's College, Baltimore, 12,000; but these were exceptionally large collections; the 2,500 volumes at Delaware College, Newark, Del., and at St. James College, Hagerstown, Maryland, were more typical of this section of the country.

In the South, the library of the University of Virginia was the largest, having 18,378 volumes. Six sister institutions in Virginia averaged 2,270 volumes. South Carolina College had at that time one of the best selected and most generously supported libraries in the country, and numbered 17,000 volumes. Eighteen college libraries in the states of North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Tennessee averaged 3,140 volumes. Five Kentucky institutions had an average of 5,100 volumes each; and seven in Ohio 2,957. Transsylvania University had 12,000, Kenyon and Western Reserve 4,500, Indiana University 5,000, and the University of Missouri 675. In 1856 the latter institution had increased to 2,300 volumes.

The small extent of the collections rendered a special library building in most cases unnecessary. Such structures as Gore Hall at Harvard, which cost \$ 75,000, the Yale library building, which cost \$ 40,000, or Lawrence Hall at Williams, were rare phenomena prior to 1860. At South Carolina College the library building was a brick structure which had cost \$ 22,000. In 1825 a circular brick building was built for the library of the University of Virginia; but as late as 1850 only the third story and dome were used for library purposes, the other parts of the building being devoted to lecture rooms, laboratory and museum.

At Brown University the library was housed in "an apartment in University Hall, crowded to excess, unsightly, and wholly unsuited for the purpose to which, from necessity, it was devoted", until in 1835 the Hon. Nicholas Brown erected Manning Hall for a library and chapel. The library and the chapel in those days were very frequently found under the same roof. This was the case at Amherst, Bowdoin, Colby, Hamilton, Middlebury, Oakland College, Miss., the University of Alabama and Western Reserve. Often, too, the library and the natural history or mineralogical cabinets were united, as at Middlebury for a time, and at Franklin College, now the University of Georgia. But most often the little collection was placed in one or more rooms of the main college building. When these in the natural order of things became filled or congested the college

sometimes, as at the University of North Carolina, ceased all purchases until better accommodations could be afforded or provided. In 1850 Marshall College, at Mercersburg, Pa., reported that "the college library is distributed among the professors — each professor having charge of those books pertaining to his department".

Slowness of growth was a general characteristic. A chief reason for this was the fixed character of the curriculum and the snail-like pace which marked changes in the methods of instruction. "For almost two hundred years after the foundation of Harvard College its course of study remained, in essential elements, unchanged". During the first half of the nineteenth century all college students pursued practically the same course of study. Latin, Greek and Mathematics were the chief pursuits of the freshmen, sophomore and junior years. In the senior year philosophy, evidences and a stray elective or two formed the staple courses. The inclusion of history, the sciences, modern languages and economics was slow and gradual. Only with them came the pressing need of many books, both new and old, for current work. Most of the instruction and study did not require the regular use of large numbers of books. Book donations were casual and of a miscellaneous nature.

Library endowment funds were as rare in the colleges as millionaires in the business world. Appropriations from the general income were made irregularly, and usually only when conditions compelled them. In 1850 South Carolina College library enjoyed the largest income among the higher institutions of learning in the country; it received from the state an annual appropriation of \$2,000. The library of the University of Virginia received \$1,000 annually from the state. Yale and Brown were practically alone in possessing endowment funds; they had \$27,000 and \$25,000 respectively. Harvard's only library fund was the Hollis-Shapleigh \$6,000 in amount, and yielding \$450 annually.

Wherever the libraries received regular care and attention some effort was made to classify them in orderly fashion. It does not appear that any one system was widely used. Brunet's is the one perhaps most frequently mentioned; this was followed at Amherst and at Dickinson College. At South Carolina College the books were described as being arranged "in three great classes — of memory, of judgement, and of imagination; or history, philosophy and poetry". Occasionally an arrangement is described which is well calculated to shock the sensibilities of the most scientific

librarian of to-day. Thus at Wake Forest, North Carolina, the books were arranged "according to appearance"; and at Oakland College, Mississippi, "according to donors".

Printed catalogues were rather frequent, but as a rule they were brief, title-a-line compilations.

The hours of opening were chiefly for the taking and return of books, and the contemporary regulations seem to indicate that so simple a procedure as this was invested with elaborate ceremony in many institutions. Consultation and use of the books within the library, as nearly as we can judge from the data under consideration, was at a minimum, if not actually discouraged, though perhaps unconsciously.

In 1850 the times at which the libraries of the various New England colleges were open were as follows: Bowdoin, one hour three times a week; Colby and Wesleyan, one-half hour twice a week; Middlebury, one hour a week; Amherst and Trinity, once a week, hours not given. At Brown the hours were 10 a. m. to 2 p. m. daily; at Yale, 10 a. m. to 1 p. m., and 3 to 5 p. m., daily; at Harvard, 9 a. m. to 1 p. m. and 2 to 4 p. m. on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and 9 a. m. to 11 p. m. on Friday. Similar conditions prevailed in the Middle States. The Columbia library was open twice a week from 1 to 3 p. m.; Hamilton, one hour twice a week; Colgate, daily from 1.30 to 4 p. m., except Saturday.

It must be remembered, in this connection, that in most cases the hours had to be such as did not conflict with the class-room work of the member of the faculty who was also custodian of the books.

The number of volumes permitted to be drawn varied greatly. In 1850 at Amherst the professors were allowed an unlimited number; the students paid four or five cents a week for each book drawn. By 1870 professors were limited to having "not more than fifty volumes at any one time". At Brown in 1843 the rule was that "no person except officers of instruction shall borrow more than one folio, which he may keep four weeks; or one quarto which he may keep three weeks; or two octavos or two duodecimos, which he may keep two weeks". Instructors were allowed ten volumes at a time. In most places, however, the payment of the library term fee entitled the students to the privilege of drawing books.

The reference use of the libraries was but slight. At Columbia in 1850 "the yearly number of persons consulting the library without

taking out books" was about one hundred and ten. At East Tennessee University the number was given as two hundred and forty.

The smallness of the libraries and the slight, required use of them in connection with undergraduate instruction, combined to render unnecessary in all but a few instances a librarian devoting his whole time to the care and administration of the collection. Hence there arose very naturally the custom of an instructor uniting his teaching with the duties of a librarian. It was both an obvious and an economical arrangement and does not altogether deserve the reproaches that have been in later days bestowed upon it. It was no more incongruous in its time than the variety of subjects often taught by one professor.

The change from the conditions thus passed in review to those now prevailing in our foremost universities and colleges did not take place all at once. The improvement in library conditions usually came after the spirit of progress, new educational ideals, and new methods of instruction had made their appearance in a particular institution. And these things came to an institution only when it had the right men and sufficient means to accomplish them. If a convenient date is desired by which to mark off the old *regime* from the new, 1876 may fitly be chosen for two reasons: first, that year saw the formation of the American Library Association, and the inauguration through its leading members of a national movement for the improvement of library conditions in general; and secondly, 1876 is the date of D. C. Gilman's first report as president of the Johns Hopkins University, an institution whose spirit, purpose and methods have had a far-reaching influence upon higher education in this country. In that report President Gilman said, amongst other things; "But the idea is not lost sight of that power of the university will depend upon the character of its resident staff of permanent professors. It is their researches *in the library and the laboratory*; their examples as students and investigators, and as champions of the truth; their publications through the journals and the scientific treatises which will make the university in Baltimore an attraction to the best students and serviceable to the intellectual growth of the land".

This passage is quoted, not because Johns Hopkins was the only institution where a new note was being sounded, but because it describes so well the new ideal of the American University, and by implication indicated the part the library was in the future to

play in the work of education and the furtherance of research. Most college libraries are still in the early stages of progress toward the realization of this ideal; but the path to it is fairly clear*).

Administrative history of college and university libraries.

The development of college and university libraries has been so rapid during the past score of years that it may be worth while to turn back for a moment and collect a few illustrations of early ideas of library management from the histories of the older universities. The most interesting ones for this purpose are those of Oxford and Cambridge, Harvard, Yale and Columbia universities.

The Bodleian in its reorganized form was opened in 1602 with a stock of two thousand five hundred volumes — a fairly large collection for those days. It had been established in Duke Humphrey's day in a suite of rooms over the Divinity School "far removed", as the old university records put it, "from any worldly noise". The first rules for the government of the library were drafted by Bodley himself. While in general they were wise ones, they reflected the spirit of the times in which they were written. Sir Thomas objected to the inclusion of belles lettres as beneath the dignity of the institution he was fostering. "I can see no good reason", said he, "to alter my rule for excluding such books as Almanacks, Plays, and an infinite number that are daily printed of very unworthy matters. Haply some plays may be worthy the keeping — but hardly one in forty . . . This is my opinion, wherein if I err I shall err with infinite others; and the more I think upon it, the more it doth distaste me that such kinds of books should be vouchsafed room in so noble a library". Scholars were required to leave a deposit in cash as a pledge of good faith when borrowing books, but the deposit was usually a mere trifle compared with the value of the loan. Unscrupulous borrowers willingly forfeited the money and kept the manuscripts. Some volumes were stolen, while others were entered in the catalogue as "missing", a distinction with perhaps very little difference. Tradition says that Polidore Virgil had stolen so many books that the authorities were finally compelled to deny him access to the library, whereupon he promptly obtained from

*) **Carlton, W. N. Chattin.** College libraries in the mid-nineteenth century. Library journal, 32: 479-86, 1907.

Mr. **Carlton** is librarian of Williams College.

Henry VIII a special license to borrow whatever manuscripts he desired and the librarian had to bow to the ruling of the king.

At one time folios in the Bodleian were chained to the shelves but the custom was given up and the chains sold for old iron in 1769. That the arrangements at the Bodleian were viewed with favor by library benefactors can be seen from a letter which the worthy John Hollis of London, second founder of Harvard College library, sent to the authorities at Cambridge in 1735: "You want seats to sit and read in and chains to your valuable books like our Bodleian library or Zion College in London. You let your books be taken at pleasure to men's houses and many are lost, your boyish students take them to their chambers and tear out pictures and maps to adorn their walls."

Gibbon in his autobiography has commented upon the sloth of 18th century Oxford and its absolute indifference to study. The records of the Bodleian substantiate the low point to which the intellectual life of the university had ebbed. The registers of books borrowed for the decade 1730-1740 show that only rarely were more than one or two books asked for in a day. In some cases a whole week is passed over without a single entry being made. The indifference throughout the university showed itself in the management of the library. For 92 years, that is, from 1768-1860, the Bodleian was so unfortunate as to be in the hands of only two men, the Reverend John Price, of Jesus College, who died in his eightieth year, and Dr. Bulkeley Bandinel, his son-in-law, who lived to be even a year older than his predecessor.

Bodleian's librarians in the eighteenth century were mostly clerks in holy orders and it was not uncommon for them to fail to open the library at all on a Saturday if they were "taking duty in the country", on the following day. There is preserved in the Bodleian a scrap of paper which an angry scholar affixed to the door of the library in 1806 when he found it closed contrary to the statutes. On it were these words in Greek: "Woe unto you who have taken away the key of knowledge! Ye enter not yourself and hinder those who come."

King George III in his famous interview with Dr. Johnson asked whether there were better libraries at Oxford or at Cambridge. The sage replied that he believed the Bodleian was larger than any library they had at Cambridge, at the same time adding, "I hope whether we have more books or not than they have at Cambridge we shall make as good use of them as they do" — a reply which

I always like to associate with the remark of Dr. Cogswell: "I would as soon tell you how many tons the Astor library weighs, as how many volumes it contains."

While the university library at Cambridge has never been the recipient of such large and rich donations as has the Bodleian, it is to-day one of the best stocked university libraries in the world. Its first benefactor was Thomas Scott of Rotheram, archbishop of York, who not only gave 200 books and manuscripts, but also the first library building. Despite other benefactions the collection appeared "but mean" in the eyes of John Evelyn when he visited it in 1654.

The most famous librarian of Cambridge University library was Henry Bradshaw, who not only left a strong impress upon the paleographers and historians of his day, but did much for librarianship by his contributions to bibliography and his work on the printed catalogues issued by the Cambridge University library. He believed in making the library as accessible as possible to those who were entitled to its use. The watchwords of his administration were "liberty and discretion", liberty for the people to go freely about the whole library, examining and borrowing such books as they liked, and discretion on the part of the administration in putting such extremely moderate restrictions upon this freedom that the security of its most precious books were safeguarded and the presence of the books most constantly needed for reference were assured without undue interference with freedom of access to the shelves or the borrowing of books from the library.

His management of the university library was not in all respects satisfactory, due mostly to the fact that the staff was very inadequate to the task of the attempted reclassification of the large collection of books, and also to the crowded condition of the building . . .

. . . Bradshaw was very strict about the observance of the library rules and could never tolerate seeing books mishandled. Dr. Zupitza, a great friend and admirer of Bradshaw, tells how one day he was making notes in ink from the famous manuscript of Bede's "Ecclesiastical history", in the Cambridge University Library when Bradshaw happened to notice him. "You Germans have no reverence", said the librarian as he rushed at the ink bottle and carried it away. A manuscript of that character could not be approached with anything more dangerous than a lead pencil.

Bradshaw had no personal ambition and was only too eager to give away such information as he possessed. He put his vast store

of knowledge at the disposal of his large group of friends and their books were all the better for his bibliographical zeal. He himself left comparatively little finished work. "My province", he once wrote, "is to give help on certain details which most people don't care about".

Before leaving Oxford and Cambridge, a word must be said about the individual college libraries. Many of these date from the 15th century when it was the exception rather than the rule for university students to own books. Books were rented from both booksellers and tutors. The college libraries then, as to-day, did not have enough copies of textbooks to go around. The statutes of St. Mary's College, Oxford, dating from 1446, forbade a scholar the continual use of a book in the library for more than one hour or at most two hours, for fear that others wanting the book might be hindered from the use of it. Most of the two score colleges of Oxford and Cambridge have their own libraries, many of them filled to overflowing with precious manuscripts and old authors. While the manuscripts, like those of Corpus Christi, naturally attract scholars from all over the world, the libraries are now comparatively little used by the students of the universities themselves. This is not surprising when it is known that to some of them no books have been added for a century or more. There is no union depository catalogue in a central place showing what these libraries contain and very little correlation, although there has been some specialization, as in the dramatic collection at Trinity College, Cambridge, or the modern history at Merton College, Oxford.

Illustrations of university library history in this country naturally begin with Harvard. The library there was begun on the death of its first benefactor in 1638 with his bequest of 320 volumes. The Mathers were among the largest collectors of books in their day in New England but few of their possessions passed into the college collection, most of the Mather library having been destroyed in 1775 during the battle of Bunker Hill. About the close of the 17th century Cotton Mather said of the Harvard College Library that while it was "far from a Vatican or Bodleian dimension", he considered it the "best furnished that can be shown anywhere in the American regions". The fire of 1763 which destroyed the Harvard Hall destroyed also the entire college library, housed in an upper room, with the exception of one volume: Downe's "Christian Warfare", which was out in circulation at the time . . . The first general catalogue of the library, printed in 1790, containing

350 pages, devotes 100 pages to theological tracts, 50 to religious books, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to Bibles, $\frac{3}{4}$ of a page to periodicals, 4 to books of travel, and ten to Greek and Latin authors — all of which shows how closely the college had held to its original purpose as a training school for the ministry.

There was practically no change in the curriculum at Harvard College during the first two centuries of its existence. The old classical course as pursued by our forefathers required comparatively few books. With the introduction of such studies as modern history and languages, the sciences and economics, came the demand for access to many books, both old and new.

That books were regarded as a first essential in the establishment of colleges in the new world is shown not only by the terms of John Harvard's will, which bequeathed one-half of his estate and all his library "towards the erecting of a college", but also by the picturesque founding of Yale College. Eleven ministers met in New Haven in 1700 agreeing to form a college. Each member brought a number of books and presented them to the body, and laying them on the table said these words, or to this effect: "I give these books for the founding of a college in this colony." Then the trustees as a body took possession of them and appointed the Rev. Mr. Russel of Branford as keeper of the library, which at that time consisted of about 40 folio volumes. The library with the additions which came in was kept at Branford for nearly three years, and was then carried to Killingworth. In 1765 the library had grown to 4,000 volumes, showing a growth of only sixty volumes a year through two generations.

Other American university libraries showed equally modest beginnings. In a letter from President Manning to Dr. Llewellyn, 1753, is found the following reference to the early efforts made on behalf of the library of Brown University: "At present we have but about 250 volumes and these not well chosen, being such as our friends could best spare", a statement which was equally true of many other college libraries of that period.

The vicissitudes of American university libraries in their early years would seem to have been enough to discourage any but the stoutest-hearted librarian. Thus the King's College buildings in New York having been required by the British for a military hospital, the books were deposited in the City Hall or elsewhere. Three years later some 600 or 700 volumes were found in a room in St. Paul's Chapel. How they got there is a mystery, but they were all that

remained of the nucleus of what is to-day the Columbia University Library. Mr. John Pintard, the founder of the New York Historical Society used to say that he remembered seeing the British soldiers carry away the books from the college library in their knapsacks and barter them for grog. Horace Walpole in his *Memoirs* sneers at the Prince of Wales, afterwards George III, for presenting a collection of books to an American College during the Revolutionary War, and says that, instead of books, his Royal Highness ought to have sent arms and ammunition.

In his report as secretary of the Smithsonian Institution for 1850, Prof. C. C. Jewett wrote: "Our colleges are mostly eleemosynary institutions. Their libraries are frequently the chance aggregation of the gifts of charity; too many of them discarded, as well-nigh worthless, from the shelves of donors. (But) among them are some very important collections chosen with care and competent learning, purchased with economy and guarded with prudence".

In 1850 Marshall College at Mercersburg, Pa., reported that "the college library is distributed among the professors — each professor having charge of those books pertaining to his department" . . .

One of the striking contrasts between the college library of to-day and that of the middle of the last century is shown by a comparison of the hours of opening . . . In 1850 the libraries at Amherst and Trinity, for example, were open once a week from 1 to 3 p. m., at Princeton one hour twice a week, at the University of Missouri one hour every two weeks. At the University of Alabama there was a rule that "the books shall ordinarily be received at the door, without admitting the applicant into the library room". Harvard with its 28 hour of opening per week was as usual in the vanguard of progress, but contrast even those liberal hours with present day schedules of 89 hours and even more per week and you see that there has been considerable progress along this line.

That the college library of the middle of the last century was little more than a storehouse for books, in which the undergraduate had very little interest, is amply substantiated by the reminiscences of older graduates. "To those of us who graduated thirty, or forty, or more years ago", said the late William Frederick Poole, "books, outside of text-books used, had no part in our education. They were never quoted, recommended, or mentioned by instructors in the class-room. As I remember it, Yale College library might as

well have been in Wetherfield, or Bridgeport, as in New Haven, so far as the students in those days were concerned”.

In the old days at Columbia College, freshmen and sophomores were allowed to visit the library only once a month to gaze at the backs of books; the juniors were taken there once a week by a tutor who gave verbal information about the contents of the books, but only seniors were permitted to open the precious volumes, which they could draw from the library during one hour on Wednesday afternoons. In 1853, the salary of the librarian of Columbia was raised to three hundred dollars. Professor Brander Matthews, who graduated from Columbia in 1871, says that the library was at that time small and inconvenient and that he never entered it to read a book and never drew one from it during all the time he was an undergraduate.

Mr. Sibley, who spent 36 years in the service of the Harvard Library, has frequently been pictured as typical of the old style collector and custodian of books . . .

His successor, Justin Winsor, was the author of the remark which has come to be regarded as one of the truisms of modern librarianship: “A book is never so useful as when it is in use.”

The salient feature of Mr. Winsor’s administration of the Harvard College Library lay in the fact that he extended very materially the use of books by students. He instituted the system of “reserved” books by which the instructor is enabled to have gathered in an accessible place the reading which he required of his classes — a device absolutely essential in the new method of teaching which substitutes the reading of authorities for the old time study of text-books.

And what as to the buildings in which these libraries were housed? The earlier ones like those of Harvard and Yale, were suggestive of Gothic chapels, while the later ones, like Michigan, Illinois and Cornell, are based upon an ecclesiastical motif, and have the questionable addition of a clock tower, the usual accompanying chimes helping to break into the quiet which it is so desirable to maintain in any library. Harvard’s Gore Hall was an attenuated copy of the chapel of St. John’s College, Cambridge, England, and necessarily ill adapted to the needs of a library. It was poorly lighted, poorly ventilated, hard to warm in winter and damp in parts during the spring and autumn. There were no private rooms, no working room, no conversation room, and no reading room worthy of the name. The only saving thing about the

management was that the advice of old John Hollis was not followed and both students and professors were allowed to draw books for use in their rooms and homes.

In some cases where the library building has been presented as a gift or as a memorial, trouble has arisen from the proverbial difficulty about examining too closely into the lines of the proposed gift. Notable illustrations of this are found in the libraries of Columbia University, the University of Pennsylvania, and the late but not lamented library of Leland Stanford University.

The importance of the university library in the educational work of the institution is being recognized more fully each year. "Much of the usefulness and attractiveness of the university for its students", said President Eliot in his annual report for 1905-06, "depends on the size of the library, on the promptness with which it obtains the newest interesting books, and on the efficiency and liberality of its administration. Any need of the library is therefore a need of the whole university" *).

Libraries of Washington City, 1914.

The city of Washington is rich in library resources. The Library of Congress would lend distinction to any place, but a recent census, undertaken to gather information for the "Handbook of libraries in the District of Columbia", issued by the Library of Congress in cooperation with the District of Columbia Library Association, showed 137 libraries with a total of 5,674,000 volumes and pamphlets. Of these about two-fifths, or 2,250,000, are in the Library of Congress: a little over two-fifths, or 2,352,000, are in other libraries supported directly by the government; while a little less than one-fifth, or 1,072,000, are in libraries not supported by the government. In this last group the most important are the college and university libraries, and among these the Riggs Memorial Library of Georgetown University; Rev. Henry J. Shandelle, S. J., librarian, easily takes first rank. The library dates from the founding of the University in 1789 and is the oldest in the city. It was named in honor of the father and brother of Elisha Francis

*) **Koch, Theodore W.** Some phases of the administrative history of college and university libraries. *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 6: 268-75, 1912.

Mr. **Koch** is librarian of Northwestern University Library.

Riggs, Esq., who, in 1891, equipped the library with galleries, alcoves and the main reading room in the south pavilion of the Healy Building. In 1911 Mr. Riggs furnished an annex. The library is rich in patristics, Greek and Latin classics, American Indian languages, religious writings, and includes alcoves of liturgical, ascetical and hagiographical works. There are some hundred volumes printed between 1472 and 1520, and a fine working collection on the fine arts.

The Library of George Washington University goes back to 1821 and now contains about 45,740 volumes. It includes the important collection on Germanic philology brought together by Prof. Richard Heinzel of the University of Vienna, and the classic library of Prof. Curt Wachsmuth of the University of Leipsig. Apart from the main library are the Law Library, Medical Library, and the library of the National College of Pharmacy, which are located with their respective schools in various parts of the city.

The library of the Catholic University located at Brookland, one of the Northern districts of the city, contains about 100,000 volumes and pamphlets. It is the center of a group of Catholic college libraries ranging in size from 3,000 to 15,000 volumes. Especially notable is the library of the Franciscan Monastery located in a building which affords an interesting specimen of monastic architecture. The library contains about 10,000 volumes and specializes in everything relating to St. Francis and the Franciscan Order.

At the Howard University for colored students there is a compact library of about 50,000 volumes, general in character, housed in a building for which Mr. Carnegie gave \$ 50,000 in 1910.

The government maintains two military schools in the District, both located at the extreme south end of the city. The Army War College for the training of officers in military science had a library of 34,400 volumes which has recently been raised to the first rank by the addition of the important War Department Library of 60,000 volumes and 40,000 pamphlets; rich in books relating to the wars in which the United States has been engaged. The Engineers' School for the instruction of the engineer officers of the United States Army has a library of 50,000 volumes, and 8,000 pamphlets, largely made up of civil, electrical, and mechanical engineering literature.

The public library located in the Carnegie Building in Mt. Vernon Square in the heart of the city, was established by an act

of Congress in 1896. It had been preceded by the Washington City Free Library in which Gen. Greely was very much interested. The establishment of the public library was largely due to the efforts of Mr. Theodore W. Noyes, editor of the *Washington Star*.

The government libraries are, as a rule, of a highly specialized character and some of them rank as the most complete of their kind. The library of the Surgeon-General's Office is the second largest library in the city, containing 503,327 volumes and pamphlets, and is a monument to the industry, scientific knowledge and bibliographical attainments of Dr. John Shaw Billings, who became surgeon-general in 1865, and through whose efforts the library was raised to the very first rank. It is believed to be the largest medical library in the world, surpassing the library of the Faculty of Medicine of Paris, which has generally been considered the largest. Even in the special field of French medical dissertations it has the most complete collection in existence. It has about 250 medical incunabula, of which Mr. Felix Neumann is making a check list. The library is further famous as being the basis of the Index Catalogue so well known to all students of medicine.

The library of the Geological Survey is hardly less notable. It contains 190,000 volumes and pamphlets and 25,000 manuscripts. Its catalogue would practically constitute a bibliography of geological science.

The library of the Department of Agriculture contains about 131,000 volumes and pamphlets. It is a good example of centralized administration. The bureau and office libraries, of which there are about 12, are really branches of the main library. They have their own librarians who devote themselves to the specialty of the office and frequently undertake important bibliographical work. For example, the Bureau of Plant Industry maintains a union catalogue of botanical and horticultural literature in the libraries in the District.

Of similar interest are the libraries of the Weather Bureau and the Bureau of Fisheries, each believed to be the best of its kind in the world. The Weather Bureau Library contains 32,000 volumes mainly devoted to meteorology and climatology. The library of the Bureau of Fisheries numbers 28,695 volumes, especially rich in the literature of fish culture for food.

Among other department libraries worthy of mention is the State Department, Bureau of Rolls and Library, one of the oldest maintained by the government. It has about 70,000 volumes on

international law, diplomacy, and description and travel in foreign countries, while its manuscripts are among the most valuable in the government archives. The Navy Department Library contains about 50,000 volumes devoted almost entirely to naval science, especially naval construction. The Library of the Department of Justice is a law library of about 45,000 volumes, rich in federal and state reports, with a considerable collection of British and foreign law. The Treasury Department Library consists of about 11,000 volumes on finance.

The scientific libraries maintained by the government are in two groups — those under the jurisdiction of the Smithsonian Institution, and a number of bureau libraries under independent control, each in its own department. The Smithsonian Institution is an organization whereby a number of the highest officials of the government are made responsible for the administration of a large trust for the increase and diffusion of knowledge. The trust is the result of a bequest by James Smithson, an English gentleman, who died in 1829. He left his property "to the United States of America to found at Washington under the name of the Smithsonian Institution an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men". The Smithsonian Institution was formally established by an act of Congress in 1846 and has been one of the most widely known scientific institutions in the world. In exchange for its publications it receives the proceedings, transactions and memoirs of other learned bodies. These are regularly transferred to the Library of Congress and constitute the Smithsonian Deposit in that library. Under its jurisdiction are the National Museum, with a library of 43,000 volumes and 72,000 pamphlets. These are shelved in the main library on the ground floor of the New National Museum Building and in 31 branches in charge of the curators of the several departments of the Museum. The next most important library under the jurisdiction of the Smithsonian Institution is the library of the Bureau of American Ethnology, consisting of 19,000 volumes, 12,700 pamphlets, 1,700 manuscripts, constituting the finest collection of books in the world relating to American Indians. The Smithsonian Institution also controls the small libraries at the Astrophysical laboratory and at the National Zoological Park. For its own use it maintains in the office of the secretary what is known as the Office Collection, which is especially rich in books dealing with the administration of museums and galleries and the classification of their contents. It

has besides a fine collection on aeronautics, and the Watts de Peyster collection on Napoleon.

In the other group of scientific libraries mention should be made of the library of the Naval Observatory containing 27,000 volumes and 3,500 pamphlets on mathematics, astronomy and kindred subjects. Its collection of serials is especially fine. The library of the Bureau of Standards contains about 12,000 volumes in physics, mathematics, chemistry and technology. The library of the Coast and Geodetic Survey now numbers about 25,000 volumes. At one time it was almost twice as large but by the judicious weeding out of irrelevant and useless material it has been made a vastly better working tool. The library of the Bureau of Education numbers 145,000 volumes. It received its greatest development under Dr. W. T. Harris, who was Commissioner of Education from 1889 to 1906. During the early part of Dr. Harris's administration the library facilities of the city were not so good as they became later, and he was practically obliged to create a library of a more general character. Under Dr. Brown, who succeeded Dr. Harris as Commissioner, the new conditions were recognized and some 60,000 volumes of a general character were sent to the Library of Congress. The Patent Office Library is in two parts — a law library of about 4,000 volumes, and a scientific library of 9,648 volumes. The former is devoted to patent law while the latter, besides works in the physical sciences, includes a very complete collection of the patent reports of all foreign countries. The library of the Census Bureau, established as recently as 1899, already numbers 58,000 volumes and pamphlets, rich in statistical publications of our own states and of foreign governments. The library includes a notable collection on the science of statistics. The Public Documents Library is also of recent date. It was established in 1895 when the first superintendent of documents was appointed. From a few wagon loads of rubbish turned over to him at that time it has now grown to 147,255 volumes and pamphlets, and 16,289 maps. It is the most complete collection of United States public documents in existence and is the basis of the important Document Catalogues published at intervals by the Superintendent.

Among the small bureau libraries which should not be overlooked is the library of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, at present located in the Commerce Building. It contains about 28,000 volumes and pamphlets both official and non-official dealing with all phases of the labor question. Its collection of trade union

publications and the reports of factory and mine inspectors is particularly important. The Interstate Commerce Commission Library contains about 26,000 volumes and pamphlets, rich in railroad literature and interstate commerce documents. The Bureau of Mines, founded in 1911, already has a library of 10,000 volumes, of which 4,000 are kept at the Bureau while 6,000 are distributed among the field stations.

The Bureau of Railway Economics is not a government bureau but is maintained by the railroads of the country. It has a fine library of 25,000 books, pamphlets, etc., dealing with railways from all points of view, and about 10,000 volumes and pamphlets, in addition, devoted to finance, labor and other matters collateral to railway economics. The bureau has published, under the editorship of its librarian, Mr. Richard H. Johnson, a union catalogue entitled "Railway economics, a collective catalogue of books in fourteen American libraries". The collection is open to all who desire to use it without restriction.

The Columbus Memorial Library of 28,300 volumes devoted to the Latin-American countries is part of the equipment of the Pan-American Union which was established in 1890 under the title International Bureau of American Republics. In 1910 the present building, for which Mr. Carnegie gave \$750,000, was dedicated, and in the same year the name of the bureau was changed to its present designation, Pan-American Union.

Washington is also notable as possessing the largest library on Freemasonry in the world. This is the library of the Supreme Council 33d degree, and numbers about 100,000 volumes and pamphlets. It will shortly be moved to the new building now in course of erection at 16th and S streets, the Scottish Rite Temple.

The literature relating to the deaf and dumb is well represented at the capital. At the Columbian Institution for the Deaf is the Baker collection rich in the older publications, while in the Volta Bureau, Washington possesses an institution almost unique. It was founded in 1888 by Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone and was the outgrowth of his extensive researches to determine the causes of deafness. The library takes its name from the fact that the Volta Prize, created by Napoleon I, was conferred upon Dr. Bell for the invention of the telephone. This prize carried a gift of 50,000 francs which Dr. Bell devoted to laboratory researches that resulted in the development of the phonograph-graphophone. From the amount received for this invention he set aside the sum of

\$100,000 for the increase and diffusion of knowledge relating to the deaf. That sum formed the original endowment and has been largely added to since. In 1909 he presented the library to the Volta Bureau. Also other property to the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, and it is now owned and controlled by that association. The library includes the most complete collection of periodicals and society publications, both American and foreign, and reports of schools in existence. Of special interest to those engaged in research work are a card catalogue of more than 50,000 deaf children, admitted into special schools in the United States during the nineteenth century; manuscripts containing authentic information concerning 4,471 marriages of persons deaf from childhood, and the special schedules of the deaf used by the Census Office in 1900 containing detailed information about 89,271 persons returned as deaf or deaf and dumb in the twelfth census of the United States.

Collections of books for the blind are to be found at the National Library for the Blind. A Vaughan press has recently been installed and the printing of books for the blind is now a part of the regular work of the library. All the operations are conducted by blind persons engaged at regular salaries. There is a reading room for the blind at the Library of Congress, and at the Soldiers' Home library there are daily readings for the blind.

The Miller Library at Forest Glen, Md., while not strictly within the District of Columbia, should be mentioned in connection with Washington Libraries. It was the private library of J. DeWitt Miller. There are about 22,000 volumes in the library, including many association books and autographed copies. Mr. Miller was a devoted Johnsonian, and collected everything relating to Johnson and his biographer.

The Library of Congress has been described so well and so often that a detailed account of it is not called for here. It will not be amiss, however, to refer to a few important developments of its special collections. The Music Division, under the direction of Mr. O. G. T. Sonneck, takes rank with the finest musical libraries in the world — with the collection in the British Museum, the collection in the Royal Conservatory of Music in Brussels, and the collections at Berlin and St. Petersburg. The Map Division, under Mr. P. Lee Phillips, a fellow of the Royal Geographical Society, also ranks among the most complete in the world. It contains 390,489 sheet maps, 5,193 atlases, and 404 manuscripts. The Division of

Manuscripts, with the papers of most of the Presidents, and of a great many public men, is of primary interest to all students investigating the source material for the history of our country. At the present time the Prints Division, which already contains 260,000 pieces, is being developed*).

Library of Congress, 1904.

The Library of Congress was founded in the year 1800, about the time that the government was first established in Washington. Five thousand dollars was the first appropriation, made April 24, 1800, while Congress was still sitting in Philadelphia. Some of the Democratic Congressmen as strict constructionists, opposed the idea of a governmental library, but their party leader, Thomas Jefferson, then President, warmly favored it. He called it, later in life, with a sort of prophetic instinct, the "Library of the United States", and his support of it from the very beginning was so hearty and consistent that he may perhaps be regarded in the broad sense as the founder of the institution.

The Library was shelved from the first in a portion of the Capitol building. The first catalogue was issued in April, 1802. It appears that there was then, in accordance with the old-fashioned method of dividing books according to size, not subject, 212 folios, 164 quartos, 581 octaves, 7 duodecimos, and 9 maps.

The Burning by the British Troops. — The War of 1812 wrecked the slender accumulations of the first dozen years of the Library's existence. The collection was entirely destroyed by fire by the British troops which entered Washington August 24, 1814.

The Acquisition of Jefferson's Library. — Jefferson was then living in retirement in Monticello. He was in some financial difficulty at the time, and he offered the Government the largest portion of his library, comprising some 6,700 volumes, for the price which he had originally paid for them — \$ 23,700. The offer was accepted by Congress, although it met with much opposition. Among those who objected to the bill were Daniel Webster, then a Representative from New Hampshire; while Cyrus King, a Federalist member of the House from Massachusetts, "vainly endeavored to

*) **Meyer, H. H. B.** The libraries of Washington. Library journal, 39: 507-11, 1914.
Mr. Meyer is Director of the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress.

have provision made for the rejection of all books of an atheistical, irreligious, and immoral tendency" — a curious example of the many attacks of a similar nature made upon Jefferson by his political opponents.

With Jefferson's books as a nucleus, the Library of Congress began to make substantial gains. In 1832, a law library was established as a distinct department of the collection. At present it numbers some 85,000 volumes, but for the greater convenience of the Supreme Court, which sits in the old Senate Chamber of the Capitol, it has not been removed from its former quarters, in that building. It is always reckoned, however, as a portion of the collection of the library of Congress.

In 1850, the Library contained about 55,000 volumes. December 24, 1851, a fire broke out in the rooms in which it was shelved, consuming three-fifths of the whole collection, or about 35,000. A liberal appropriation for the purchase of books in place of those destroyed was made by Congress, and from that time to the present day the growth of the Library has been unchecked.

Development and Organization. — In December 1864, Mr. Ainsworth Rand Spofford was appointed Librarian by President Lincoln. The general management of the Library has always been in the hands of a joint committee of Congress; but the membership of the committee is constantly changing, so that the librarian is practically the real head and director of the institution. During the time that Mr. Spofford occupied his position, not only was the growth of the collection little short of marvellous, but so many changes of system were introduced as almost completely to transform the old Library of a half century ago. The year following Mr. Spofford's appointment the previous copyright law was modified so as to require the deposit in the Library of Congress of a copy of every publication on which copyright was desired, the second copy required being deposited elsewhere. The administration of the law was still divided, however, in that each State had its own office for copyright — some States more than one — with the result that the volumes due the Government were sometimes received and sometimes not. There was no way to call the negligent publisher or author to account, for no single office contained the complete information necessary. Such system as existed was often invalidated by the carelessness of the officials — the Clerks of the United States District Courts — in charge of the various States. In 1870, therefore, Congress still further amended the copyright law by

consolidating the entire department in the hands of the Librarian of Congress, as Register of Copyrights, and providing that of articles copyrighted, two copies are required to be deposited in the Library of Congress to perfect copyright. Since then, the law has worked with perfect smoothness, and with the result of enormous additions to the Library.

The Old Quarters in the Capitol. — For many years the Library had been kept in the west front of the Capitol. Here there was provision for perhaps 350,000 volumes. With the great increase, the old quarters had long been utterly inadequate. The crypts in the basement of the Capitol afforded room for storage, but the hundreds of thousands of books, pieces of music, and engravings thus stored were for the most part entirely inaccessible to the student — a serious loss to the usefulness of the Library, in spite of the fact that, so far as the books were concerned, only duplicates and such volumes as were seldom called for were thus laid away. The copyright business could be kept up to date only by the greatest effort. The rooms regularly devoted to the Library were so small, and so over-crowded with books, that there was almost no opportunity for quiet study, while the ordinary official routine was carried on with the greatest difficulty and inconvenience.

In 1897, Mr. Spofford was succeeded as Librarian by John Russell Young, the well known journalist and diplomatist. At the time of Mr. Young's appointment the Library building had been completed, but the collection had not been transferred. His brief administration was devoted to the installation of the Library in its new quarters and in the organization of the staff.

Mr. Young died January 27, 1899. His successor was Mr. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of the Boston Public Library, who took office April 5, 1899, Mr. Spofford having served as acting Librarian in the interim. Under Mr. Putnam's administration the Library service has been further re-organized and a beginning made upon the arrears of work necessary in order to place the existing collection upon an effective basis and to provide for its effective development. The Library, though greatly lacking in many important departments, has to-day in mass by far the largest single collection on the Western Hemisphere*).

*) **Small, Herbert.** Handbook of the new Library of Congress. Curtis and Cameron, Boston, 1901, pp. 2-5.

B. EARLY PRINTERS.

John Gutenberg.

The fatality which seems to have made printers of all countries the subjects of judicial authority was fairly foreshadowed in the record of John Gutenberg, the inventor of typography. Not, it is true, for the same cause, for the mischiefs of printing were not then felt, yet the remark holds good. It is not from his printed books but from the records of courts of law that we have to glean the great events of his life. He came from a turbulent family. One of his ancestors was put under ban for burning a convent, and for fomenting civil strife. At different times the family had been obliged to leave Mentz to escape the wrath of the burghers they had offended. Gutenberg himself, sharing the fortunes of his father, was for many years an exile at Strasburg. There his father died, leaving a widow dependent on the scant pension grudgingly allowed by the magistrates of Mentz for the sequestration of the family estate. The pension was not regularly paid.

As the son of a once wealthy patrician (for the Gutenbergs and Gensfleischs were, to use the German phrase, well-born), it may be presumed that he was fairly educated for his time. That he was obliged to earn his living was obvious; but whether he worked with his hands or head, at art, trade, or profession, does not yet appear.

In that century it was not an easy matter to learn an art or trade of value: no one could enter the ranks of mechanics even as a pupil, without the payment of a premium in money; no one could practice any trade unless he had served a long apprenticeship. These exactions hopelessly shut out many who wished to learn; but men who had complied with all the conditions were often unwilling to teach, or to allow others to practice. Many trades were monopolies, protected by legislative enactments. So far as it could be done, every detail of mechanics was kept secret, as may be inferred from the old phrase "art and mystery", which is still retained in indentures of apprenticeship of all countries. One of the consequences of this exclusiveness was, that some mechanical

arts were invested with unusual dignity. The sharply defined line which, in our day, separates art from trade and mechanics, did not then exist.

The testimony shows that Gutenberg had a knowledge of three distinct arts. The one earliest practiced was the polishing of stones or gems; the second was that of making mirrors. Gutenberg was not the inventor of the latter art, but he seems to have been the first to practice it in Strasburg. The third art was the secret, the wonderful invention which raised the expectation of his partners to a high degree of enthusiasm. It seems that Gutenberg's partners and pupils in the enterprise of gem-cutting and mirror-making visited him unexpectedly in a retreat which he had secured, for the sake of entire seclusion, in the deserted convent of Saint Arbogastus, a ruin not far from the walls of Strasburg. To their chagrin, they found Gutenberg working at a secret art which he had not bound himself to teach his partners. They begged hard to be admitted, and to be taught the new secret, and to have a share in its profits. After some debate Gutenberg consented. He then told his pupils that the money he had already spent on the development of his secret was almost as much as he was about to ask them to pay for their shares; but the art was incomplete, and it would be necessary to expend more money before it could be made perfect.

The key to this new method was not, as is generally believed, the discovery of the value of movable types, for movable letters had been known and used for centuries. It was in the mechanism for making the types, — the mechanism by which they could be made more cheaply than letters engraved on wood, and so accurate as to body that they could be combined and interchanged with facility. Simple enough the mechanism required for this work may seem to the reader; simple enough, no doubt, it seemed to Gutenberg when the idea first presented itself, but it was a problem in mechanics over which he seems to have labored for years. The key to the secret was in the invention of the adjustable type-mould, with its appliances of punch and matrix, — a very circuitous and artificial method of making types, it must be confessed, but it was the method first invented, and the only method now in use ... If Gutenberg had been an ordinary dreamer about great inventions, he would have abandoned an enterprise so hedged in with mechanical and pecuniary difficulties. But he was an inventor in the full sense of the word, an inventor of means as well as of ends, as resolute in

bending indifferent men as he was in fashioning obdurate metal. After spending ineffectually all the money he had acquired from his industry, from his partners, from his inheritance, from his friends, — still unable to forego his great project, — he went, as a last resort, to a professional money-lender of Mentz, John Fust.

The character and services of John Fust have been put before us in strange lights. He has been alternately represented as the inventor of typography, and the instructor, as well as the partner of Gutenberg, as the patron and benefactor of Gutenberg, a man of public spirit, who had the wit to see the great value of the new art, and the courage to risk his fortune with that of the needy inventor; as a greedy, crafty, and heartless speculator, who took a mean advantage of the necessity of Gutenberg, and robbed him of his invention.

He made, in 1450, a strange contract with Gutenberg, from which he expected to receive all the advantages of a partnership without its usual liabilities. These terms were hard, but Gutenberg had the firmest faith in the success of his invention. In his view, it was not only to be successful, but so enormously profitable that he could well afford to pay all the exactions of the money-lender. The object of the partnership is not explicitly stated, but it was without doubt the business of printing and publishing text-books, and more specifically the production of a grand edition of the Bible; the price of a fair manuscript copy of which, at that time, was 500 guilders (about \$200 at the present value of the guilder). The expense incurred in printing a large edition of this work seemed insignificant in comparison with the sum which Gutenberg dreamed would be readily paid for the books. But the expected profit was not the only allurements. Gutenberg was, no doubt, completely dominated by the idea that necessity was laid on him, and that he must demonstrate the utility and the grandeur of his invention. It must be done, whether the demonstration ruined him or enriched him. After sixteen years of fruitless labor he snatched at the partnership with Fust as the only means by which he could accomplish this great purpose of his life.

It may be assumed that Gutenberg must have printed something before he printed the Bible. It is not probable that Fust would have lent him money before a practical demonstration of Gutenberg's ability. Peter Schoeffer said that four thousand crowns of gold were spent before the third section of this Bible was completed. But Fust had not, at that date, advanced to Gutenberg so large a

sum, and we have no evidence that Gutenberg borrowed money from any other person. It is probable that he had reached the end of borrowing. We can account for the expenditure of this large sum only by the hypothesis that Gutenberg, even as early as 1451, was successfully engaged on practical work, from which he derived an income. The curious pieces of printing known as the "Letters of Indulgence", the first typographically printed work with printed dates, are properly regarded as his work.

Gutenberg's fame as a great inventor is not at all justified by the trivial work attributed to him, which may have been first in order of time, but not of merit. His fame as the first printer is more justly based on his two editions in folio of the Holy Bible in Latin. The breadth of his mind is clearly indicated by his selection of a work of such formidable nature. There is an admirable propriety in the circumstance that he introduced his new art to the world of letters by the book known throughout Christendom as "The Book".

The Bible in folio would be a great undertaking for any printer. In the infancy of printing, the difficulties were of a more formidable nature, for Gutenberg had to make the types before he could begin to print. Fust did not aid Gutenberg as he should have done. Instead of furnishing 800 guilders in one sum, and in one year, as was implied in the contract, he allowed two years to pass before this amount was paid. As a necessary consequence the equipment of the printing office with new types was delayed. At the end of the two years, when Gutenberg was ready to print, he needed for the next year's expenses, and for the paper and vellum for the entire edition, more than the 300 guilders which were allowed to him by the contract. Fust, perceiving the need of Gutenberg, saw also his opportunity for a stroke in finance, which would assist him in the ulterior designs which he seems to have entertained from the beginning. He proposed a modification of the contract, — to commute the annual payment of 300 guilders for three successive years by the immediate payment of 800 guilders. As an offset to the loss Gutenberg might sustain, Fust proposed to remit his claim to interest on the 800 guilders that had already been paid. Gutenberg, eager for the money and credulous, assented to these modifications.

It is not known how many copies were printed. We may infer from the custom of later printers that the edition was small. At the close of the fifteenth century, three hundred copies of a book

in folio were rated as a very large edition. We have no knowledge of the price first asked for the book*). Unbound copies were sold at different times and places, not long after its publication, for various sums ranging from twelve guilders to sixty crowns. Nor do we know anything about the reception the book met from the book-buyers of Mentz. On the 6th of November, 1455, John Fust brought a suit for the recovery of the money advanced to Gutenberg. As Gutenberg was unable to pay the demand we may suppose that the Bible had not been completed, or if completed, had not met the ready sale that had been anticipated . . . That Fust did Gutenberg a grievous wrong is very plain; that Gutenberg had managed the business of the partnership with economy and intelligence is not so clear. At no period of his life did the great inventor show any talent for financial administration. He was certainly deficient in many qualities that should be possessed by a man of business, and Fust may have thought that he was fully justified in placing his money interests in the hands of a more careful manager.

But Fust would not have broken with Gutenberg if he had not been prepared to put a competent successor in his place. In Peter Schoeffer, a young man twenty-six years old, who had been employed in the printing office, Fust discerned an intelligent workman who gave promise of ability as a manager . . . Gutenberg was legally deprived of his printing office and of the exclusive right to his great invention, but he was not left friendless and utterly impoverished. Nor was his spirit broken by his great calamity. The reflection that Fust was owner of his printing materials, and had a full knowledge of the new art, and was about to enjoy its profits and honors, aroused this man of energy and combativeness to active opposition. He was nearly sixty years old, but he had lived a life of industry and integrity; he was vigorous in mind, if not in body, and evidently retained all his old power of persuasion. When he determined to establish a new printing office, he found helpers.

We have evidence that Gutenberg's printing office was in active operation in 1458, and that he had then acquired reputation as a printer. We have evidence also that he was embarrassed by his debts. After the year 1457 he was unable to pay the four pounds annually to the chapter of St. Thomas at Strasburg, as he had

*) A copy of Gutenberg's Bible, printed on vellum, is reported to have been purchased by Dr. O. H. F. Vollbehr, Berlin, in 1926, for \$305,000; who sold it to the Library of Congress, 1930.

agreed to do in 1441... We have abundant evidence that printing was done with zeal and diligence, not only by Gutenberg, but by Fust and Schoeffer, and according to some authors, by rival printers whose names are unknown. Twelve works, large and small, have been attributed to Gutenberg; and there are enough of relics of early printing in Mentz before 1462 in the shape of handbills, calendars, and religious tracts, to prove that the people of that city must have bought them freely. But the art was born in a troubled time.

On the night following the 27th of October, 1462, Adolph, aided by the treachery of some of the residents, effected an entrance into the city. Then followed a night and a day of horrors. The city was given up to be sacked, and there was no respect for age, rank, or sex. The noble citizens who were not murdered were robbed and driven beyond the walls. The booty was sold in the cattle-market and the money divided among the soldiers. The house and types of Fust were destroyed. As he and Schoeffer had their lives spared, and as they soon after were encouraged to establish a new office, and printed proclamations for Adolph, it is supposed that they did not suffer as severely as many others.

During the three years that followed no books of value were printed in Mentz. We do not know how Gutenberg was affected; we find no authoritative statement that his printing office which contained his types was destroyed; it is not even certain that his office was then in the city of Mentz. In the year 1466 the printing office which contained his types was in active operation at Eltvill, a village not far from the city. As this was the place where Gutenberg's mother was born, and where she had an estate, it is possible that Gutenberg found some advantage in making it his residence soon after his separation from Fust. Eltvill was also the place which Adolph II had selected for his residence before he made his attack on Diether, and it may be presumed that Eltvill was the place where Adolph first new of Gutenberg and his works.

In 1465 Adolph made Gutenberg one of the gentlemen of his court, "for agreeable and voluntary service rendered to us and our bishopric". The nature of the service is not explained, but it is the common belief that the archbishop intended to recognize the utility of Gutenberg's invention. Very comforting it is to learn, from the document certifying his appointment, that the man who had invented an art which promised to renew the literature of the world, and had made Mentz famous forevermore, was thus rewarded by

the first ecclesiastical dignitary of Germany: "by accepting him for life as our servant and courtier; by clothing him with a court suit, as we clothe our noblemen; by the annual gift of twenty mout of corn and two voer of wine, free of tax, on condition that he shall not sell it nor give it away."

Gutenberg did not long enjoy the leisure of a courtier. In February, 1468, he was dead. Nothing is known of the cause or the circumstances of his death, nor is there any mention of a surviving family. We have to conclude that John Gutenberg, the inventor of the greatest of modern arts, died weighed down by debts and unattended by wife or child. The appreciation which he and his art received after his death seems tardy and scant, but it was as much as could have been expected from his age.

The archbishop requested that the types of the dead printer should always remain in Mentz. All the printers of that period recognized the fact that Gutenberg's method of making the types, or type-mold, with its connections, was the proper basis or starting-point of the invention. Schoeffer, who first printed a notice of the new art, speaks of it as the "masterly invention of printing and also of type-making", implying that the art of printing was inseparably connected with that of type-making. Gelthus, the relative who mortgaged his house to lend Gutenberg money, put up a tablet in the Church of St. Francis, "in perpetual commemoration of his name, as the inventor of the art of printing — deserver of the highest honors from every nation and tongue" *).

William Caxton

Caxton was born in the Weald of Kent, about 1422, and died in London in 1492. His life covered, therefore, the period during which Gutenberg was perfecting his printing-press, and included also the years in which Koberger was beginning his publishing work in Nuremberg and Froben was organising his publishing concern in Basel ... While the larger number of early printers had been training in technical or mechanical work, which secured for them a certain preparation for the technical requirements of the new art; and others, as in the case of Aldus, had had experience as students and as instructors which gave them advantages for the

*) **De Vinne, Theodore L.** John Gutenberg, *Scribner's monthly*, 42 : 73-85.

editorial work of scholarly publishing, the larger proportion of the active life of Caxton had been devoted to business as a wool-merchant; in connection with which business he could, at least in his earlier years, have had but few opportunities for coming into relations with men interested in literature.

In 1441, when Caxton was about twenty years old, his first master died and he was sent to Bruges, where he became a member of the English *House* or the English *Nation*, the term applied to the association of English merchants residing in Bruges, and carrying on from there business with England and with the other trade centers of the Continent . . . Of the English *Nation* in Bruges Caxton became governor, in or about 1462, a position which made him the leading Englishman in the dominions of Burgundy . . .

After 1467, while Caxton still held his official responsibilities and before he had begun to investigate the new art of printing, we find him interesting himself in literary pursuits. He began in that year the translation of the *Histories of Troy* (*Le Recueil des Histoires de Troye*), which translation was printed in 1474 . . .

It was the good fortune of Caxton to be for thirty-three years a resident of the city which could divide with Paris the distinction of being the literary capital of North Europe; and for the latter portion of that time, in his close association with the Court, to have had access to the ducal libraries and the other great collections of the city . . .

In the advertisement or announcement of his business, issued by Caxton about 1480, he professes himself ready to satisfy any man, whether spiritually or temporally inclined. The wording of the advertisement is as follows:

"If it plesse any man spirituel or temporel to bye any pyes of two and three *comemoracios* of Salisburi ose emprynted after the forme of this present lettre whiche ben and truly correct, late hym come to Westmenester in to the almonesrye at the reed pale and he shall have them good chepe."

Mr. Blades gives a list of ninety-eight separate works identified as Caxton's, in addition to which there are eight or ten others concerning which the evidence is doubtful. The titles of the first five, printed in Bruges, in co-operation with Mansion, have already been cited.

. . . Very few of the books had any title-pages, and when the name of the author is mentioned, it must, as a rule, be looked for in the publisher's or translator's prologue. In some instances the

dates of the printing have been arrived at or approximated by the references made by Caxton in his Prologue, or in a concluding paragraph, to the date when the work of the translation had been completed. In the small number of volumes containing an imprint, the pleasing variety of the form and spelling of such imprint is to be noted. The more usual wording is "Emprynted by me Wylliam Caxton at Westmynstre", but from this form there are a number of modifications.

Caxton died in 1491, when he was nearly seventy years of age. He was at work until within a few hours of his death upon the translation of the *Vitae Patrum*.

The list of Caxton's publications, as compared with the lists of the first printers in Germany, Italy, and France, is noteworthy in a number of respects. Caxton did not undertake a single edition of the Scriptures or of any portion of the Scriptures, while the books of the Bible had formed the first and most important ventures of all the early printers of the continent. Caxton's judgment that the England of his day was not asking for Bibles, was confirmed by his immediate successors, and no edition of the Bible was printed in England before the close of the fifteenth century. The list contains also no theological works, no editions of the Fathers, and, with the exception of a single treatise of *Cicero* and a volume of *Böethius* no works belonging to the older classics. Its most distinctive feature is the long series of romances and legends translated from the French, the translations of which were largely the work of the printer himself.

Caxton brought into his publishing business methods and standards which were the results of a long and honorable experience as a merchant. While he did not amass wealth, he seems to have sufficiently mastered the principles of a balance-sheet to have been able to carry on his undertakings with a full measure of independence and with no such serious financial anxieties as those which oppressed Gutenberg or which hampered the too idealistic ventures of Aldus *).

*) **William Caxton** and the introduction of printing into England, 1422-92.

From, **Putnam, G. H.** Books and their makers during the middle ages, pages, 101-48. Putnam's 1897.

The Elzevirs.

The name of Elzevir has for more than two centuries been a familiar one to collectors of choice books.

These Dutch printer-publishers of the seventeenth century were able to associate their imprint with certain publications of such distinctive typographical excellence as to ensure for the editions known as "Elzevirs" a prestige that has endured to the present day.

Louis Elzevir, who, as far as his publishing undertakings are concerned, was the founder of the family, had been brought up as a binder in the Flemish University town of Louvain. He was a Protestant, and in 1580, when existence for Protestants had been made difficult in the Catholic provinces of Flanders, Elzevir, in company with hundreds of others of his faith, made his way across the borders to Holland, and settled, with his family, at Leyden . . .

Elzevir began work as a book binder for the students and instructors of the University, adding to this business, a little later, a bookselling shop. The undertaking, however, proved unsuccessful . . .

. . . The University council, recognizing the value for higher education of the service to be rendered by a skilled and conscientious bookseller, gave him permission to construct within the limits of the University court a small bookshop, and authorized Elzevir to announce himself officially as the bookseller, and, later, as publisher, to the University.

With this fresh starting point, Louis succeeded, after some years of persistent and painstaking labour, in creating an assured business foundation . . .

The first work published by Louis as a venture of his own was an edition of *Eutropius*, issued in 1592. It was, however, not until after 1594 that his publications began to appear with any regularity . . .

The most distinctive work of the Elzevirs began, however, only after the death of Louis, which occurred in 1617. He left six sons, two of whom were carrying on book-shops in Utrecht and the Hague, in affiliation with the present concern in Leyden . . . The eldest and the youngest, Matthew and Bonaventure, joined hands to carry on the business of their father, a business which they were able very largely to extend and develop.

In 1625, the Elzevirs took over the printing-office of Erpenius, who was at the time the only printer in the Netherlands, and one of the few in Europe, who possessed any oriental fonts. In 1629, they initiated with *Horace* and *Ovid* the series of Latin classics in

sixteenmo, a form which followed very fairly the proportions of the famous series of Aldus. In 1641, they began, with the issue of *The Cid*, a series of contemporary French drama, and in 1642, with the works of Regnier, a series of the chief monuments of French literature.

Bonaventure and Abraham died in the same year, 1652, but their sons, John and Daniel, were already of sufficient training to assume the direction of affairs.

The work of the Elzevirs in Leyden had continued from 1621 to 1712, a period of ninety-one years. The printing and publishing House instituted by the Elzevirs in The Hague began its operations in 1590. Its first head was Louis, the second son of the founder of the dynasty. His work was, however, limited to the business of bookselling, his establishment containing one of the most comprehensive and best organized collections of scholarly publications to be found in the North of Europe. After his death, in 1621, the business was carried on for about twenty years, first by his brother Bonaventure and, later, by his nephews and cousins.

The publishing career of Louis Elzevir, the founder of the House, continued from 1583 to 1617, a period of thirty-four years. During this term he published a hundred and one separate works...

The association of Matthew, Bonaventure, and Abraham Elzevir, who succeeded to the business of their father Louis, and with whom was associated as the printer to the concern their brother, Isaac Elzevir, continued from 1617 to 1625. During these seven years, they published one hundred and twenty-one separate works and editions...

The third concern, comprising Bonaventure and Abraham, continued from 1625 to 1652, a period of twenty-seven years. Their list comprises four hundred and sixty-one works...

The firm of John and Daniel Elzevir continued for three years, from 1652 to 1655, during which time it published fifty-four works...

John Elzevir carried on the business for six years, from 1655 to 1661, during which time he printed one hundred and twelve works...

The widow of John continued the business for twenty years, from 1661 to 1681. During this period she issued or printed forty-seven works.

Abraham Elzevir, with whose life was terminated the record of the Leyden House, carried on the business for thirty-one years,

from 1681 to 1712, during which time he printed but twenty-three works.

Louis Elzevir, the second of the name, initiated, in 1638, the publishing business of the Amsterdam House ... During seventeen years he published one hundred and eighty works ...

Louis and David Elzevir were associated from 1655 to 1664, a period of nine years, during which time they published one hundred and forty-nine works ...

Daniel Elzevir, with whose death terminated the publishing work of the House, carried on the business after the retirement of his cousin, from 1664 to 1680, a period of sixteen years. During this term, he published two hundred and fifty-nine works.

The Elzevirs had carried on business as printers, publishers, and book-sellers, in their several Houses in Leyden, Amsterdam, Utrecht, and The Hague, from 1583 to 1681, a period covering nearly a century. Their several catalogues give the titles of 1,608 separate works or editions issued or printed by them during this time, an average of about sixteen each year. It was naturally the case, however, that the publications issued annually during the later period very much exceeded those for which the founder of the House was responsible.

One very material advantage which was enjoyed by the Elzevirs as compared with other families whose names belong to the record of publishing, was the continued vitality of the family itself, a vitality which ensured the carrying on of the work of the House effectively through three generations. In each one of the two generations which succeeded that of Louis the founder, there were from two to five representatives who had the interest and the ability to continue the special work which had brought fame to the family. Such a persistency of family purpose and of living representatives of the family competent to carry out such purpose has been paralleled in but few other instances*).

The Estiennes.

The first publishing office in Paris was founded, in 1469, at the request of two *savants* of the Sorbonne, Fichet and Heynlin, by

*) The Elzevirs of Leyden and Amsterdam, 1587-1688.

From **Putnam, G. H.** Books and their makers during the middle ages; pages 286-339. Putnam's, 1897.

Gering Krantz, and Friburger from Constance. The work was carried on in one of the Halls of the Sorbonne. Forty years later, there were in Paris over fifty printing concerns. The policy of cordial encouragement still prevailed, and no restrictions had as yet been placed upon the business. After the introduction of printing, the printers took a position in society much above that occupied by their predecessors, the copyists. The difference could have been due only in part to the possession of greater scholarly attainments, for the better class of copyists must themselves have had some knowledge of the subject-matter of their manuscripts. The business of the printers required, however, the control of a certain amount of capital, while the selection of works of reproduction and the preparation for the compositors of trustworthy texts called for a wide range of literary information and scholarly training. The printers were, in the first place, left as free as had been the copyists to reproduce such works as they might select. No claim had thus far been made for exclusive ownership in, or control of, literary productions, and no censorship supervision had been established on the part of the Government. This state of things continued during the reign of Louis XII., and, in an edict issued April 9, 1613, the King confirmed and extended the privileges previously acquired by booksellers as officials of the University.

In this edict, Louis speaks with great appreciation and admiration of the printing art, "the discovery of which appears to be rather divine than human". He congratulates his kingdom that in the development of this art, "France takes precedence of all other realms". A year later, the King put on record his opinion that dramatic productions should be left free from any restrictions. In 1512, the King writes to the University requesting the Faculty to examine a book which the Council of Pisa had condemned as heretical. In place, however, of demanding or suggesting that measures of severity should be taken against the writer of the book, the King proposed that the professors should have the book gone over chapter by chapter and should put into form a refutation of any of its conclusions which seemed to them to be contrary to the truth.

The first book printed in Paris by Gering and his associates was a collection of the *Letters* of Gasparino of Bergamo. The volume was in Latin, and the Roman form of type was used, notwithstanding the German control of the office, Humphreys is of opinion that specimens of the beautiful volumes which had been printed in

Venice by Jenson had been forwarded to Paris, and that these served as models for the earlier issues of the Paris Press.

The second Press established in Paris was that of Caesaris and Stoll, who began work for themselves in 1473. They were both students of the University but they found it desirable to carry on their business outside of the University limits. The demand in Paris, both within and without the University, for printed books, increased very rapidly, and before the close of the century the trade in books far exceeded that of any city in Europe. For a number of years, however, a very large proportion of this demand was supplied from the presses of Mayence, Strasburg, Venice, Milan, Cologne, and Bruges.

The first volume printed in Paris in French was *Les Grandes Chroniques de France*, which was issued in 1477, by Paquier Bonhomme, bookseller to the University. This was, however, not the first printed book that had appeared in French, as it had been preceded, by some years, by the *Recueil des Histoires de Troyes* published in Bruges by Caxton. In 1495, Anthony Verard, who had previously been an illuminator and probably also an engraver of block-books, established a printing office and devoted himself particularly to the production of illustrated works. In 1503, he printed in English, for sale in the English market, *the Art of Living and Dying*, the illustrations in which occupy about as much space as the text.

After Paris, Lyons was the city of France in which the art of printing secured the earliest introduction and the most rapid development. The printer-publishers of Lyons showed themselves "enterprising" in more ways than one. They were free from the immediate supervision and control of the authorities of the University of Paris, and, as the history of the Paris Press shows, the difficulties placed in the way of publishing undertakings by the bigoted and ignorant censorship of the theologians, must have more than offset the advantages usually to be secured in the production of scholarly publications, through the facilities of the University collections and the editorial service rendered by the University members.

... The business carried on by these early publishers differed very materially from that of their successors. All the machinery of book-making had to be originated or created, while it was necessary also to establish channels of distribution, and through these to discover and to educate a reading public which should absorb the productions of the new presses. The task of selecting the works

which were best adapted for the requirements of the first buyers of printed books, of securing trustworthy texts of these works, of editing these texts, and of supervising their type-setting, called for a large measure of literary judgment and scholarly knowledge, combined with a capacity for organizing and directing an editorial staff. There was also necessity for the gift of imagination, through which could be pictured literary conditions and creations for which there were yet no precedents. And finally, steps had to be taken for securing a legal status for the new class of property that was being brought into existence, in order that some portion at least of the rights and advantages assured by the State to owners of other classes of property might be enjoyed by the producers of literature. In the absence of any accepted principles or precedents, it became necessary to convince princes, ministers, councils, and parliaments that it was for the interests of the community to encourage the production of literature, and that this could be done only by establishing and defending property rights for the producers.

The printer-publishers of the first century of printing who, in the face of this complex series of difficulties, responsibilities, and requirements, succeeded in creating a business and in producing for their own generation and for posterity long lists of costly and scholarly editions of the great books of their world, may fairly be called men of achievement.

For France, after the foregoing brief references to the undertakings of the earliest printers, some special mention is fairly due to the famous family of the Estiennes or Stephani, the members of which took rank not only with the great publishers but with the distinguished scholars of their time, while they are also to be commemorated as having, in troublous times, shown themselves to be strong-hearted men, possessing the courage of their convictions. No other family, excepting possibly that of the Elzevirs, was for so many generations engaged in the business of printing and publishing, while the work of the Stephani was carried on under exceptional difficulties, commercial, literary, theological, and political. The editorial responsibility in preparing for the press the scholarly productions of later publishers was for the most part confined to professors or other scholarly associates, but the books issued by the Stephani were, with a few exceptions, edited and supervised by the publishers themselves; nearly all the members of the family being men of scholarly training, while one or two took rank with the most learned men of their generation.

Henry Estienne, the first, published in all about one hundred separate works, which, with hardly an exception, were issued in Latin. He associated with the editorial work of his printing-office three learned doctors, Charles Boville, Jacques Le Fèvre d'Estaples, and Josse Clichtou. Le Fèvre is known as the instructor of the reformers Calvin and Farrel. His so-called heretical opinions rendered him obnoxious to the Doctors of the Sorbonne, and if it had not been for the special interference of Francis I, by whom his learning and his merits were held in high esteem, his life would more than once have been in jeopardy.

Henry died about 1520. The work of his Press was at the outset continued by Colines, who married his widow. Colines gave special attention to the production of impressions of the best Latin classics, and was the first of Paris printers to adopt for these the italic type and the more convenient cabinet, or sixteenmo, form which had been first utilised by Aldus. Robert Estienne, the most famous printer of his name, owed to his step-father his typographical education, and it must have been largely due also to the influence of Colines that the taste of the young Robert was from the beginning directed to the dissemination of classical literature.

Robert's responsibilities as a printer in his own name begin with 1524, in which year he became proprietor of the paternal *Imprimerie*. He was then twenty-one years of age. He had been able to profit but little from the training of his father, Henry, the first of the Estiennes, who had devoted himself to printing; as the latter had died when Robert was but seventeen; but he had, as before noted, the advantage of the supervision of his step-father Colines, himself both a skilled printer and a good scholar. The work of the young printer was begun in troublous times both for France and for Europe. It was but eight years since, by the burning at Wittenburg of the papal bull, Luther had initiated the great contest of the Reformation. The wordy strife of the theologians was proceeding with increasing bitterness throughout all Christian lands, and behind the theological contentions of the scholars, the feelings of the common people were being aroused into a condition of ferment and dogmatic partisanship such as the world had not yet witnessed, and which was for years to come, in the name of Christianity, to bring desolation upon many lands.

... The printing-press had been in use for three quarters of a century, but the demand for books had still (as in the manuscript

period) been in large part restricted to the scholarly circles of the universities and of the educated ecclesiastics.

It was only with the eager, popular demand for instruction and information which developed with the outbreak of the Reformation, that there came to the people at large a realization of the value to them of the invention of Gutenberg, and an understanding of its importance for the work of educating and of organising the people for securing of the right of individual thought, and for protection against the oppression of Church and State. The work of publishing material for popular circulation begins practically with the Reformation ... The system of censorship, ecclesiastical and political, a system which was to do much to hamper the the development of literature and of publishing, dates in substance from the Reformation; no censorship, however rigorous, was competent to restrain the growing activity of the press.

It was manifestly impossible to carry on with any sufficient assurance as to the future a publishing business involving the planning of large undertakings, unless some consistent and intelligent policy of censorship could be depended upon. The enmity of the Sorbonne appeared to be persistent and irremediable. The irritable suspicions of the divines concerning the heretical character of texts printed in Greek could hardly be removed as long as these divines remained ignorant of Greek. As Robert was not prepared, under the behests of such ignorant censorship, to discontinue his scholarly publishing undertakings, there remained for him no resource but to abandon Paris, and to transfer his business to some city where the censorship would be either less rigorous or more intelligent.

The removal of the business to Geneva took place early in 1552 ...

Robert Estienne died in the latter part of this year 1559, having continued actively engaged in the work of his printing-office until within a few weeks of his death. In the same year occurred the death of Henry II., the French King, which was occasioned by a wound received in a tournament. By Robert's will, the bulk of his property, including the printing-office and publishing business in Geneva, was left to his son Henry, who had for some years been actively associated in its management, and who had inherited a full measure of his father's scholarly interests and business capacity ...

The exceptional personal erudition of Robert Estienne, the distinctive importance of his publishing undertakings, the zeal evinced by him from the beginning of his career for the advancement

of learning and for critical scholarship, and the courageous fight made by him against the assumption of the bigoted divines of the Sorbonne of the right to exercise censorship over a literature of the very language of which they were for the most part ignorant, constitute the grounds for my selection of him as the most worthy representative of the printer-publishers of France of the sixteenth century, and for presenting with some little detail the chief incidents of his career . . .

. . . It is, in fact, very difficult to understand how, during a period of frequent war, when communications were irregular and travel was difficult not only between France and the adjoining states, but throughout the kingdom itself, it could have proved practicable to secure a remunerative sale for costly works of such special character as the majority of those issued by Estienne. The difficulty must have been considerable even in making known to scholars throughout Europe the fact of the publication of the books, and after the orders were received, there remained the task of making the deliveries and of collecting the payments*).

*) Early printer-publishers of France. — The Estiennes. From, **Putnam, G. H.** Books and their makers during the middle ages. Vol. 2, pp. 3-60. Putnam's 1897.

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